

Public Personnel Review

JULY, 1960

Are Public Service Strikes Necessary?

A City Manager Looks at Personnel

The Denver Lay-Off Formula: Seniority Plus Merit

Practical Ways to Improve Examinations

Flexible Certification: The Ventura County System

Human Relations Revisited

Research and Results

Personnel Opinions

Personnel Literature . . . The Bookshelf

Journal of the Public Personnel Association

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

The Journal of the Public Personnel Association

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Public Personnel Review

The quarterly journal of the Public Personnel Association provides a medium for the publication of factual material and for materials that may represent divergent ideas, judgments, and opinions. The views expressed in articles and other contributions are those of the authors and may not be construed as reflecting the views of the Association or the editors unless so stated.

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Personnel People Play a New Role

PLANS for the impending transition to a new administration in the United States government reveal a new role for personnel officials. Whatever the outcome of the November election, many new faces will appear in important federal administrative posts. The U.S. Civil Service Commission and agency personnel officials are undertaking an imaginative attack to make the transition a smooth one. Their goal embodies a two-fold objective—to prepare agencies and their personnel to respond to the programs and policies of the incoming administration; and to assist new officials in assuming their duties by attaining full effectiveness in the shortest possible time.

Important as these plans may be for the federal service, they also hold significant implications for other governments in this country. For instance, this fall there will be gubernatorial contests in 27 states. How many changes of administrations these will produce, we are unable to predict; whether they will be desirable or not depends on the individual point of view.

The point is that transition from administration to administration is a constantly recurring phenomenon in our democratic form of government. We can expect different political leaders from time to time even when the party in power remains. This is true not only in this country, but in Canada and elsewhere.

Early this year all personnel parties to the "transition" process in the U.S. federal government held an informal conference to chart a course of action. It was the consensus that integrity of the career system was a "must." Maintenance of integrity, conferees agreed, included selection and retention of personnel on a merit basis, as

well as accomplishing work objectives of government agencies as defined by Congress and the President.

Steps to be taken in assuring an effective transition include these: to define the responsibility of White House offices for a broad briefing of incoming executives; to develop within departments an orientation program for new top-level executives; to define responsibilities for both career and political executives in providing new executives with specific knowledge about current and anticipated departmental problems.

In addition to these broad attacks on the problem, federal personnel officials foresee specific activities in both the get-ready and operational phases of the process. They are reviewing the "policy and confidential" Schedule C positions to provide up-to-date information; organizing their work to allow time for intensive conferences with new executives; preparing orientation programs dealing with personnel policies and the federal system; collecting biographical information on top career people now employed in non-career posts; arranging for briefing materials to be prepared by departing executives. They expect to render assistance to new executives in filling non-career jobs and are informing career employees in non-career posts of their status.

Personnel officials in other areas of government will want to observe the experience gained this year in Washington. Many aspects of the program can be modified to apply to government at any level. Development of dynamic and positive "transition" programs opens another avenue of broadened service to be rendered by personnel people who are alert to their opportunities for service.

Kenneth O'Warner

EDITOR

Meet the Authors

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(McGraw-Hill, 1955) with C. W. Brown. He is a past president of the Business and Industrial Division of the American Psychological Association.

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● **Oscar S. Smith**, author of *Are Public Service Strikes Necessary?* is Director of Industrial Relations for the Atomic Energy Commission. During 26 years of personnel and industrial relations in the federal government, he has been officially involved in some of our most serious labor disputes, ranging from the "captive mine" and "little steel" disputes of the thirties to four national emergency disputes under the Taft-Hartley Act. A graduate of Antioch College, he has served as mediator for the Petroleum Labor Policy Board and as Director of Operations for the National Labor Relations Board. He has contributed articles to various professional journals and is a previous contributor to the *Public Personnel Review*.

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in the present article, he has a number of other innovations to his credit, including the first accredited junior college student work experience program and the first suggestion-awards program for county government.

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Are Public Service Strikes Necessary?

Oscar S. Smith

Needed: A new approach to public service collective negotiation without the work stoppage as a bargaining weapon.

IN RECENT TIMES the meetings and publications of organizations concerned with public personnel have, with increasing frequency, included more and more discussion of union organization and collective bargaining on the part of public employees. Among the legislatures that met in 1959, union recognition or disputes settlement provisions were liberalized in five states, with only one state imposing new legal prohibitions.¹

In the face of a growing body of judicial opinion, tempered no doubt by public policy in respect to private employees, the earlier view that organization of public employees constituted a threat to state sovereignty is receding into the background. The idea of bilateral negotiation of at least some of the terms of employment between government employers and organizations of government employees now has considerable acceptance.

Some Basic Questions Unanswered

There are, however, basic questions yet to be resolved before we can feel confident that such negotiations will be workable and effective in governing and improving the public employer-employee relationship if adopted on any wide-scale basis. Important among these questions is the role of the work stoppage. In union-employer negotiation of employment conditions in industry, availability of the work stoppage is a most effective persuader to reasonableness and agreement.

Some persons who look favorably on union organization among government employees may reject the idea that availability of the work stoppage is an essential ingre-

dient of successful negotiation. Others familiar with industry experience will contend that, without this element, negotiations are not likely to result in bilateral agreement. It is essential to answer squarely the questions of (1) whether the work stoppage can ever be considered available in public employment, and (2) absent this factor, whether there are other effective incentives or procedures that can be relied on to accomplish agreement.

The thesis of this discussion is that: (1) reliance on availability of the work stoppage as a persuader to agreement is incompatible with public employment; (2) although sometimes successful in particular situations, good will, the benevolence of government, and the self-restraint of employees are inadequate in any widespread usage to accomplish continuing negotiation of effective and productive employer-employee relations; and (3) the believed advantages of collective bargaining can be realized in public employment only if incentives and procedures to agreement that place no reliance on work stoppage are identified and developed. Each of these propositions will be discussed briefly.

Work Stoppages in Government

Apart from any question of legality,² there are compelling reasons why the work stoppage should not be available to public employees as a persuader to reasonableness. These reasons differ from those sometimes advanced in support of possible limitations

² There is a body of judicial opinion that work stoppages are banned in public employment even in the absence of a specific statutory prohibition. See *Los Angeles Metropolitan Transit Authority vs. Railroad Trainmen* (California Superior Court) 45 LRRM 2229.

¹ 44 *Labor Relations Reporter* 212.

on work stoppages in private or even in quasi-public work.³

The criteria for evaluating a work stoppage in such situations take into account the impact on public health and safety, on the health of the economy, on the national defense, or on other activities, the interruption of which creates a very real emergency of wide proportions.⁴ While like considerations might also be cited as persuasive arguments against the availability of work stoppages of public employees, there are other more compelling and ever-present reasons. These relate to (1) the essentiality of continuity and orderliness in government activities; and (2) the underlying fallacy in any concept of a test of economic strength between stable government and a section of its constituency, i.e., its employees.

While a work stoppage might be an effective device for building political pressure, this is something quite different from the economic strength envisaged in the current practice of collective bargaining in private employment. Employment conditions relate to an economic base and, as an economic measure, a work stoppage must ultimately fail before the superior power of authorized government officials.

Much organizational activity of government employees is directed to political ends, but such activity neither constitutes collective bargaining nor brings the values that are accepted as a basis for making collective bargaining our national policy in private enterprise. In the interest of brevity, the point will not be developed further, but the availability of the work stoppage as a persuader to agreement in public employment should be completely rejected.⁵

³ The term is here used to cover important government work (i.e., national defense production) under contract to private companies.

⁴ See, for instance, Neil W. Chamberlain and Jane Metzger Shilling, *The Impact of Strikes* (New York: Harper Bros., 1954); Irving Bernstein, "The Economic Impact of Strikes in Key Industries," in *Emergency Disputes and National Policy* (New York: Harper Bros., 1955), pp. 24-45; E. L. Warren, "Thirty-Six Years of National Emergency Strikes," *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, Vol. 5 (1951), pp. 3-19.

⁵ On occasion, legislatures and courts, as well as students of the subject, have endeavored to distinguish between the so-called proprietary functions of government and the governmental functions with the intent of foreclosing work

The Road to Collective Bargaining

Current concepts of collective bargaining in industry developed around certain philosophies relating to economic power. Early court decisions in respect to labor organization took account of the helplessness of the individual employee in dealing with the large corporate employer.⁶ The National Labor Relations Act of 1935 stated as Congressional finding that inequality of bargaining power as between employer and employees leads to strife and interruption of commerce. The Labor Management Relations Act of 1957 continued to adhere to this finding and represented a congressional intent to establish a better balance in this bargaining power relationship.

Typically, the theory today is that negotiations will result in agreement when a balance of strength has been reached and each party is convinced that he will lose as much or more than he can gain if he presses further demands. The work stoppage is the device relied on to "separate the men from the boys." When the appropriate balance cannot otherwise be reached, it is the persuader to reasonableness that shows up the bluffer, cuts the arrogant down to size, and exposes miscalculation and misjudgment.

The Work Stoppage as an "Equalizer"

In spite of questions that may arise from disputes such as the 1959 steel negotiations, it is still generally accepted that the work stoppage is the device that makes collective bargaining workable in industry today.⁷ If the work stoppage were not available as a persuader to reasonableness, the employee might be relegated to a supplicant role before an absolute employer.

Under such a situation, it is relatively unimportant that the employer may act benevolently. During the twenties and thirties, many employers extended benevolence and support to employee representation plans,

stoppages in the latter while permitting them in the former. The practical validity of this distinction has not been established, and this approach will not be discussed in this paper.

⁶ See, for instance, *American Steel Foundries vs. Tri-City Central Trades Council*, Supreme Court of the U. S., 1921 (257 U. S. 184).

⁷ See, for instance, M. S. Ryder, "Strategy in Collective Bargaining Negotiations," *Michigan Business Review*, Vol. 7 (1955), pp. 1-7.

but negotiations under these plans were neither truly bilateral nor authentic and positive. Lacking these characteristics, the plans not only failed but served as stimuli—rather than tranquilizers, as some had hoped—to outside union organization. Some of today's strongest unions have their genesis in such plans. For instance, the lineage of the United Steel Workers, AFL-CIO, includes the Employee Representation Plan of the United States Steel Company, in addition to the AFL Amalgamated Association of Iron, Steel, and Tin Workers.

The first national emergency proceeding under the Labor Management Relations Act of 1947 arose in a government-owned, privately operated atomic energy plant.⁸ The government took a position that, although the employees were engaged by a private employer, a strike was unthinkable because of national safety reasons. The President invoked the procedures of the act, and the federal court enjoined the threatened strike. Later, the President established a special commission to review this problem throughout the atomic energy program. Mr. William H. Davis, the chairman of this commission, testified before the Joint Committee on Atomic Energy on the good will and benevolence of employers, as follows:

Of course. And that is the basic reason that the other side, being human beings—I mean no reflection on them; they are all good people that I have dealt with—say: "Well, these fellows can't strike. We know that. But we will be good to them. We will satisfy them. We will discharge our responsibility." Now, that is unrealistic. Because the other fellows don't believe it. And, of course, the worker is at a disadvantage in a situation where interruption by strike is impossible.⁹

If the work stoppage is rejected, as concluded above, more than a vacuum must be put in its place. While isolated situations may be found where bilateral negotiations appear to have been successful in government employment, and where both the right to strike and alternative incentives or pro-

cedures have been absent, these situations do not warrant any general conclusion applicable to bilateral negotiations on a widespread basis. Good will and benevolence alone cannot be relied on to fill the vacuum adequately.

The Central Issues

The question becomes one of whether, with rejection of the work stoppage as a persuader, it is possible to have a workable system of representation and bilateral negotiation that will produce something of value which justifies collective bargaining as a public policy in private employment.

The protagonists of our national policy of encouragement of collective bargaining in industry undoubtedly believed many values would be derived from adoption of this policy. Some of these anticipated values are concerned with such broad economic matters as elimination of certain causes of strife, stabilization of wages to bolster recovery and resist recession, impact on the distribution of income, etc.

These considerations may be disregarded in this discussion because of their lesser pertinence to public employment. Of concern here are the factors having a direct effect on the employer-employee relationship. A somewhat oversimplified summary of these would include (1) participation in the determination of conditions of employment by the persons directly involved and (2) a method of participation whereby the parties assume responsibility for agreeing among themselves on these conditions. The latter distinguishes collective bargaining from other methods of establishing conditions which may also provide some measure of participation.

Arbitration, for instance, provides a form of participation, but one where the role is akin to that of a litigant. Political activity, aimed at influencing executive decisions on working conditions, might even be viewed as a form of participation, but one which impairs internal governmental relationships and erodes the executive responsibility. Even simple petitioning of the executive for redress of grievances provides some participation.

Any one of these forms of participation may result in a reasonable and just conclu-

⁸ Report on Labor Dispute at Oak Ridge National Laboratory, House Doc. 726, 80th Congress, 2nd Session.

⁹ Transcript of Hearing on "Recommendations on Labor Relations Policy in Atomic Energy Installations," May 3, 1949, 81st Congress, 1st Session.

sion, although the last may be uncertain and the second undesirable for many reasons. However, none of them provide the parties with the satisfaction of creating their own relationship by the agreement process. There can be little doubt that jointly created agreement between employer and employees provides the firmest base for day-to-day working relationships and makes for responsibility in the daily administration of established conditions.

The AEC Labor Panel Experience

For some ten years now, the Atomic Energy Commission has maintained a mediation panel to assist in resolving disputes between the cost-reimbursed private contractors engaged in atomic work and their employees. When agreement does not result from the process of negotiation, this panel on occasion recommends the terms and conditions of settlement. These recommendations may be accepted or rejected, but the pressures that exist for acceptance are such that the recommendations sometimes assume a semi-compulsory character.

Analysis of the work of the panel clearly indicates that a high order of justice has been meted out in the recommendations that have issued. Had the settlements been made directly between the parties without panel assistance, a lower measure of justice might have resulted. In spite of this, it is not uncommon to hear allegations that the panel "only splits the difference" or is "profligate" or "penurious" with the taxpayers' money. However, the parties are inevitably proud of and defend their negotiated agreements. The point is that people generally accept, defend, and believe in conditions they create themselves in preference to conditions determined by others.

Irrespective of other advantages (and there are some), this one—the determination of conditions of work by agreement between the affected persons—would seem to be as worthwhile in public employment as in industry. It gives strong support to the desirability of introducing some form of bilateral negotiation into public employment on a fairly broad base.

The problem, as stated earlier, is whether

such a course is compatible with our rejection of the work stoppage, the ingredient in the industrial picture that is a prime catalyst in the achievement of the negotiated agreement with its ensuing effective and productive employer-employee relationships. Or does foreclosure of work stoppages so impair incentive to agreement as to suggest failure of the bilateral negotiation approach in public employment?

Wanted: Alternatives to Work Stoppage

As yet, we have developed no accepted and satisfactory alternative to the work stoppage as an effective persuader in industry. Most of the alternatives that are periodically proposed for critical situations have recognized shortcomings that may make them even more inadequate in public employment than in industry. Some of the novel and untried alternatives, i.e., the non-stoppage strike,¹⁰ are inapplicable in government, whether or not feasible in industry, as are also such devices as government seizure. Arbitration, although useful, as we have seen, falls short of meeting the objective of joint creation of working conditions by those affected.¹¹

The more difficult nature of the problem in public employment is evidenced by the use of uncertainty and the choice-of-alternatives approach in critical industry. The idea of providing for a choice of alternatives, with resulting uncertainty on the part of the disputing parties as to which will be followed by the responsible government authority, has been adopted both in the atomic energy mediation procedures and in the

¹⁰ The non-stoppage strike proposal contemplates legislation designed to foreclose strikes or lockouts under certain circumstances while imposing an economic burden, through monetary penalties, equivalent to the burden that would be incurred under an actual work stoppage. See LeRoy Marceau and Richard A. Musgrave, "Strikes in Essential Industries: A Way Out," *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 27 (1949), pp. 286-292; George W. Goble, "An Alternative to the Strike," *Labor Law Journal*, February, 1955, pp. 83-86; Neil W. Chamberlain, *Social Responsibility and Strikes* (New York: Harper, 1953).

¹¹ For an analysis of some other shortcomings of arbitration, see R. W. Fleming, "The Search for a Formula," in *Emergency Disputes and National Policy* (New York: Harper Bros., 1955), pp. 200-223.

handling of private labor disputes affecting the public interest in some of the states.¹²

In general, any alternative to the work stoppage as a persuader to agreement is proposed in industry only for emergency situations.¹³ The work stoppage is retained as a persuader in non-critical situations. As the existence of an emergency may require a given set of facts, present at some times but not at others, the resultant uncertainty as to whether the work stoppage may be useful acts as some incentive to agreement.

In the experience of the AEC labor panel above referred to, this factor is believed to have been an important one in inducing agreement in many negotiations. In this experience, there has been no total rejection of work stoppages. Rather, each situation is reviewed on its merits, and the mediation panel is expected to use its expertise in following a course that will best reconcile the sometimes inconsistent objectives of continuity of production and establishment of working conditions by direct agreement of the parties. Total rejection of the work stoppage as a persuader forecloses the advantages of such an approach in public employment.

Incentives to Agreement in Public Service

The object of the present discussion has been to focus attention on the problem, not to offer an assured solution. However, it should be noted that there are some lesser incentives to agreement which are fairly easy to identify, although it is difficult to evaluate their effectiveness.

For instance, there is a dedication to the service among both officials and employees

in public employment. This may exist in quite varying degrees in different times, places, and occupations; nevertheless, it seems to be a stronger factor here than in private employment. This dedication may contribute much to the will to agree.

The importance of public work, a strong sense of satisfaction in a job well done, objectivity that comes from recognition of an inherent public responsibility, public accountability, and other like factors may also at times become important incentives to agreement. Whether enough of these lesser incentives can be identified, developed, and strengthened as factors motivating agreement between public officials and organizations of public employees is a question that warrants intensive study.

Beyond this, can imaginative procedures be devised that act as avenues to agreement? The answer to this question requires venturesomeness and a willingness to try new methods. For example, instead of accepting arbitration, with its noted inadequacies, as the obvious solution, why not try a system of referring unresolved disputes to an umpire whose function is not to make substantive decisions but, rather, to prescribe special procedural steps, i.e., the paths the negotiations should follow in a search for resolution of the issues? Or, why not try out a formal system of private mediators for public employment disputes, much as government mediators are now provided for private disputes in industry?

A system of bilateral negotiation of employment conditions can offer important values in public employment. But, before the as yet imperfect system of collective bargaining in industry can be adapted successfully to public employment, certain problems must be resolved. One of these, in particular, is that incentives and procedures must be found to replace the work stoppage as a persuader to agreement, while at the same time fostering authentic and positive negotiations.

¹² See, for instance, *Acts and Resolves, The Commonwealth of Massachusetts* (1954), Chapter 554, Section 1.

¹³ For a discussion of an approach which would foreclose strikes of public employees only under circumstances of this type, see Leonard D. White, "Strikes in the Public Service," *Public Personnel Review*, Vol. 10 (1949), pp. 3-10.

A City Manager Looks at Personnel

Lyman H. Cozad

The marks of a good personnel program, as seen through the eyes of a personnel-man-turned-manager.

EVERY CITY MANAGER works with a personnel system. The system may vary from a "seat of the pants" approach to that outlined by a 600-page manual. How does a manager rate his system? There are almost as many answers as there are managers. However, some generalizations may be hazarded. They might be divided into evaluations of the personnel program, the personnel director, the technician, the civil service commission, and the combined sum-total of these components.

The Personnel Program

A personnel program is judged by its results, not its appearance. This is obvious. What results are most important? The majority of city managers would name first the ability of the program to attract and retain persons who perform well—not just "satisfactory" people who "get by," but better-than-average workers. For this, as for most of its program, the personnel department is not solely responsible; however, it must take a major share of the responsibility for recruiting competent personnel.

Another area of great concern to managers is that related to incentives. Since some types of cash incentive plans are not practical for the public service, there is a need for the best possible substitutes. Employees in the public service, like people everywhere, are capable of tremendous variations in performance. A person who performs at a certain level when he is attempting to "just get by" can frequently produce three or four times as well when he is properly motivated to put forth job effort at a level consistent with his innate capacity.

In the development of proper incentives, complicated though it is, the personnel program can be of tremendous value. It can

first of all eliminate deterrents to motivation by having uniform plans for classifying positions and applying pay ranges and steps. It can also make this objective approach not only known to all employees but as well understood by them as possible. Each of these is important.

Of even greater importance is the development of positive incentives. The provision of a pay plan which actually encourages more than just passable performance is one approach. Suggestion plans may also be a source of financial rewards for the employee. Many non-financial incentive approaches are possible, and the city manager is often badly in need of suggestions for those which might be most effective in his city.

A Sound, All-Purpose Program

In spite of all incentives, some persons will fail to produce to a satisfactory degree. There must be means of eliminating the mediocre worker from the career employee group. Allowing him to remain reduces the pride and incentive of the others. In this area it is part of the function of a good personnel program to balance individual rights with the good of the service. It is frequently contended and sometimes true that the former is overemphasized—sometimes at the expense of the latter.

A sound personnel program prevents top management or political officers from eliminating people to make room for their friends. When there are proper controls over the appointment of unqualified persons, rigid controls over discharges become unnecessary. The personnel system should provide as simple a method for eliminating the unqualified as possible, in the meantime preventing discharges for reasons of poli-

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tics, race, creed, or color. Within the system which results, the personnel man has a responsibility to assist top management in the actual methods best calculated to secure the necessary separations from service.

City managers are also vitally interested in good human relations and welcome advice as to the best ways to develop a team approach from employees whose attitudes strongly favor progress. An employee we each look for, but find with only partial success, is that person with a strong individual sense of responsibility to his public organization, including a fine feeling for proper relationships with the public.

In expecting all of this from a personnel program, a city manager seems to be asking for a great deal. It is certainly true that the answers are not to be found in Chapter 1 of any of the standard personnel texts. However, these appear to many managers to be our most serious needs, and that program will be rated highest which does the most to meet these needs.

The Ideal Personnel Director

The manager's desire for employees who work together effectively as a team is equally great when it comes to his personnel director. A manager hopes that he will have in his personnel director someone with intimate knowledge of its organization goals and problems. The best personnel answer is a custom-made one. To be good, the problem to be solved must be understood. A personnel director who does not keep fully informed of changing objectives, organization, and difficulties in his jurisdiction is less effective than one who does.

It is also desirable that a personnel director understand and like people and be liked by them. This is sometimes cataloged as "the ability to get along well with others." Actually it is much more than this. It is very difficult to understand other humans and their problems unless one is honestly interested in them. This interest in the problems of others is in inverse ratio to one's attachment to himself. Whatever the reason, people with equal knowledge and experience vary tremendously in their effectiveness in a staff or auxiliary job, depending upon their

capacity for understanding and influencing other people.

A third trait highly favored in a personnel director is a sincere desire for improvement coupled with the kind of energetic and extroverted personality which radiates that desire for all to see. The person whose need for security keeps him constantly confined to an area of activity in which there is no risk will not do. The world is full of such people. The effective personnel leader will be one who wishes to constantly improve the organization of which he is a part and makes this so obvious that he influences others to adopt the same attitude. The man who is satisfied to be on the losing team or the mediocre squad is not the kind that most managers seek.

Results Speak Louder Than Words

A test of a manager's opinion of his personnel director is the frequency with which he turns to that man with unusual problems. Theoretically, he should direct his assignments or delegate his responsibilities in strict accordance with a functional plan of organization. In fact, most of us turn to the person who can be counted on to produce effective results. This practice confuses organizational and classification analysts, but it is a natural habit when one wants to get the fastest and best solutions to the problems that confront him. The man who is rarely consulted has no one but himself to blame. When he complains that top management does not let him in on their planning and problem solving, he should ask himself how much assistance he would provide. He may have to demonstrate his helpfulness on very minor problems to begin with, but if he does so, he will soon find himself in the midst of the most difficult problems with which his superiors contend.

Evaluating a Personnel Technician

It is considered humorous by some to comment that the trouble with technicians is that they are too technical. In the minds of some managers at least, the opposite is true. Many city managers feel that their technicians could use more technical skill. In this connection, there is considerable truth in

the old saying that "a little knowledge is a dangerous thing." The technician with limited scientific training often has an unwarranted confidence in the technical tools he uses. He may even develop a rigidity concerning existing methods based in part on ignorance regarding other methods. This is one reason why some managers prefer technicians with experience in more than one agency.

In this, as in all fields, continued interest in different methods and new approaches and intellectual honesty are very important.

The Civil Service Commissioner

It is generally assumed that city managers and civil service commissioners necessarily disagree with each other and that this disagreement is based primarily on the freedom of the manager to fire without interference from the commissioners. This alleged conflict is not at all necessary and usually does not exist.

The manager hopes that the commissioner will keep in mind the objective for which his commission was created: to improve the public service. The group to be served is the entire public and not simply the employees. When this goal is accepted, it will be recognized as identical with the objective of the manager. Then, instead of an inevitable conflict, we have merely the question of the relative functions which each assumes in advancing that goal. Whatever the law establishing the commission, its intent was for advancing good government, and if it provided for a merit system, the purpose of that merit system is not to benefit employees, but to benefit the public. It is a means to an end, and that end is better public service. On this point the manager and the commissioner are in complete agreement.

If a civil service commission assumes that its objective is to protect the employee rather than the public, there is a possibility for serious disagreement. In the same way, if a manager places his authority above the public interest, a similar opportunity for conflict develops. By accepting their common goal, such possibilities are largely eliminated.

The Problem of Removals

The problem becomes specific and potentially serious when we reach the area of removal of employees from the service. The manager is usually made responsible for the quality of administration in a jurisdiction he serves. He is also responsible for seeing that the wishes of the legislative body are carried out. In order to fulfill both of these functions, he feels that he must have something to say about the hiring and firing of the personnel.

Many civil service laws seriously limit the right of removal. Their purpose seems to be to prevent partisan political appointments as well as removals to make way for such appointments. No one can question these objectives although their necessity was greater fifty years ago than it is today. Rigid control over removals becomes less necessary when the control of appointments is strong. If only qualified persons, as determined by competitive examination, can be appointed, there is much less likelihood of an elected official or a manager removing someone to make room for a political appointment.

In spite of this logic, many civil service laws still give an independent commission full authority to veto the action of an administrator, legislature, or both, in removing a person felt to be incompetent. If only the law is at fault, the commission and the manager can cooperate by recommending revision. If, however, the commission chooses to defend such antiquated law, and the legislature or the manager is proposing modernization, the conflict mentioned as potential becomes actual. In this case the commission seems to have lost sight of its main objective.

A View on Reviews

On the other hand, there are some managers who insist that there should be no review of their discharges. This position also seems somewhat extreme. In this year of 1960, it is generally accepted that employees are entitled to some grievance procedure, whether they work for private or public employers.

No manager should object to the review

of removals by a merit-system agency, provided the review is primarily to determine whether political, racial, religious, or other irrelevant considerations led to the discharge. Neither should he object to a review to determine that the proper procedures were followed and the rights of the employee respected. Most managers will not object to such reviews.

They will, however, protest when the independent review board substitutes its own judgment for that of the responsible supervisory echelons and decides that the degree of incompetence was not sufficient to warrant discharge. They take particular exception when this judgment is accompanied by action to return the employee to his work without regard to the wishes of the regular line of command, including the legislature.

Most managers would prefer that the recommendation of the review board come to the manager and that he be permitted to consider it together with the recommendations of the officer initiating the discharge. It would be fair if the review board's recommendation went to the legislative body to which the manager is responsible. In that case the manager's recommendations can be weighed by the legislative body together with those of the review board.

Any city manager deplors a situation in which the review board's decision is not subject to review, discussion, and final determination by either himself or the legislative body. Unfortunately, in some jurisdictions this practice is followed. If the decision of the manager should be subject to review, then certainly the decision of an independent review board should also be reviewable. The final authority may very well be the legislative body responsible for all activities in the jurisdiction.

This discussion of the problem of procedures on discharge should not be allowed to exaggerate its importance. Only a very small percentage of the time and effort spent on personnel problems by either the personnel organization or the manager is devoted to discharges. It has been discussed here at length solely because it seems to be the one area in which conflicts frequently develop. In all the other areas, the manager is usually quite satisfied with the services

offered by a personnel agency, and is deeply interested in receiving the best quality of such service that can be obtained.

General

In every part of the personnel department—indeed, in his entire organization—the manager is constantly on the look-out for ways to improve and to economize. He must maintain a critical attitude, re-examining existing methods and organization at every turn in his search for a simpler or a better way of doing things.

He is always reminded of the need to economize. It seems, unfortunately, to be true that as governmental functions or occupational groups professionalize, the amount of financial support which they deem desirable is continually on the rise—not only to maintain certain salary levels, but also to further the extent and quality of program which they offer the public. It sometimes appears that only budget officers, managers, and legislators remain to protect the taxpayer from ever-spiraling governmental costs! Here, especially, staff members, including those in the personnel department, who have the originality and imagination to suggest improvements and economies are always most welcome.

Perhaps even more important is the type of person who can cooperate readily with others, including persons whose viewpoints differ. Part of this seems to result from a trait which we might describe as the ability to subordinate oneself to the objectives of the organization he serves. The willingness to consider fairly the ideas of others, to drop one's original position when a better one is recognized, and a respect for the thinking capacity of any individual are perhaps elements which best represent this attitude. This type of person is welcome in any organization, particularly one in which most accomplishments require substantial agreement and cooperation among a group of people.

A very similar trait highly prized by all managers is the ability to accept criticism. If this is lacking in a person, he can hardly be expected to work for and meet the public without considerable strain on his physiological make-up. Similarly, he will find it

difficult to work effectively with others in a group. Finally, any supervisor is much more comfortable when working with subordinates who can accept criticism without an inevitable defense of self, regardless of the merits of the points made.

As the last general standard, managers welcome personnel who have a sincere desire to improve the public service. A manager cannot forget—because he is reminded so frequently by the public—that the position he holds is only a part of an organization existing solely to serve that public. He therefore must put quality of service above all else in his standard of values, and he

must have fellow workers who share his interest in improving the service offered by the organization.

It is a relatively easy matter to restrain over-eager subordinates who attempt more than it is possible to accomplish within a given time period. Not so easy is the task of breathing life and fire into persons, who for one reason or another, have lost all interest in improving the quality of their performance. Perhaps this general standard, applied to the personnel director, the technician, the commissioner, and the program, best summarizes the evaluation used by many city managers.

Morale Is a Many-Splendored Thing . . .

Morale is you and you and you but never me. It's the boss and the clerk. It's on the job and off. It's too much work or not enuf. It's worry about bills or concern about the children. It's a toothache or a stomach upset. It's freeway traffic or a parking ticket. It's a busted water heater or a leaky roof. It's the routine or the usual—deadlines or backlogs. It's the same old lunchroom or 'where shall I eat.' It's a late nite out during the week or 'nuthin ever happens.' Retirement is too far off or it's right around the corner. It's hot or it's cold; raining or dry. It's lack of promotion or not enuf pay. It's the window being closed or sitting in a draft. It's a dream or a nightmare—hope or frustration.

Yes, morale is all this and more but who knows exactly what it is. It can be shaken, disturbed, lowered or erased by a small act, a word or a look. Morale is a jig-saw puzzle with thousands of pieces. Untold effort and patience and cost must go into completing the puzzle. Yet a slight jostling by an elbow, a movement by one finger or a sudden gust of wind can destroy that which has been building for years.

What is morale? I don't know—but if it's there we don't realize it and if it isn't, it means trouble. Just let it not be my look or my word or my finger that jumble the pieces of the puzzle we call morale.—Rudolf Beiser, Assistant Personnel Officer, VARO, Los Angeles, quoted in *Civil Service Reports*, January, 1960.

The Denver Lay-Off Formula: Seniority Plus Merit

F. Arnold McDermott

A practical method for combining length of service and value on the job into a single order of lay-off for reduction of force.

IN A DECISION rendered in November of 1957,¹ involving the lay-off of an employee under the jurisdiction of the Career Service Authority, the Supreme Court of the State of Colorado made several findings that have been of great significance in determining lay-off policy of the city and county of Denver, and in defining the authority of the Career Service Board with respect to the establishment and maintenance of such policy. The Court ruled that:

1. Seniority should be "of first consideration."
2. The right of appeal is a fundamental and undeniable right of an employee under civil service. "If this is not true, civil service is useless and impotent. If an employee has earned a position of seniority, he is to be protected in that earned right by civil service, if it means anything at all, and in procuring and maintaining that protection, a hearing and opportunity to defend such earned rights is inherent in the entire process before such rights, or any part thereof, can be taken from the employee. . . ."
3. The Career Service Board is not limited to a consideration as to "whether the administrative head had used good or bad faith. . . ."
4. The courts cannot consider whether the board's findings are right or wrong if there is competent evidence to support them.

Events Leading to the Decision

The decision of the Colorado Supreme Court resulted from a suit brought by the

city administration following a board action concerning an employee, named Fallon, of the city parking garage who was laid off out of the order of seniority. The contention of the city in the hearing before the Career Service Board was that this employee was less proficient than the employee with less seniority who was being retained. Fallon claimed that he was as proficient as other employees in the same class in the agency, and that therefore seniority should have been the controlling factor.

The personnel rule then in force provided that supervisors should determine the order of lay-off of employees "on the basis of their relative proficiency and length of service with the city." The Career Service Board, after hearing, found that the evidence of inefficient performance did not support the departmental decision to lay off the employee out of the order of seniority.

Following the board's decision, the city administration brought suit, and the District Court ruled in favor of the city on the grounds that the board was without jurisdiction. The Supreme Court reversed the trial court, stating that the board did have jurisdiction granted by charter amendment and that "the judgment of the trial court is tantamount to depriving the people of the City and County of Denver of their exclusive power to amend their charter. . . ."

The Wheels Turn

The most important outcome of this case was the clarification of the authority of the board with respect to hearing appeals and in making decisions on appeals. However, of major significance was the emphasis that the Supreme Court placed on the im-

¹ *Nicholson vs. Fallon*, 136 Colorado.

portance of seniority as a factor in the determination of lay-offs. This emphasis in turn led the board and its staff to study methods by which the rule in existence might be revamped in order to conform to the ruling of the court and yet give proper consideration to management objectives.

Departments and employees wanted a formula made up which would provide precise answers as to who should be laid off so that confusion, appeals, and litigation would be held to a minimum. Yet the rule adopted should not handicap management or jeopardize employees' rights. Department heads insisted, along with these ambitious objectives, that the lay-off formula should give as much weight as legally possible to the factor of proficiency. Representatives of organized employees sought straight seniority as the sole criterion to be used for lay-offs.

Seniority or Merit?

A study of the lay-off procedures of other municipalities in the country and of industries in the Denver area clearly showed that seniority was a predominant factor in the determination of the order of lay-off. A survey conducted by the city of Tacoma, Washington, in June of 1953,² revealed that 27 cities used seniority as the lay-off criteria, 14 cities used a combination of seniority and merit, and 2 cities used merit only.

In reviewing the rules of the jurisdictions which used merit as a factor, however, it was apparent that the term "merit" was either loosely defined or not defined at all. And there was a noticeable absence of any method of weighting the factors of seniority and proficiency.

In most cases where "merit" or "proficiency" was a factor, decisions were based on the service-rating plan in use in the particular jurisdiction. Considering the use (or abuse) of service-rating plans and their notorious weaknesses, I suspect that the order of lay-off in such cases rests, in the final analysis, more on seniority than proficiency.³

²A Survey of Certain Personnel Practices and Procedures and the Organization for Personnel Administration in Cities 100,000 to 500,000 Population, Tacoma, Washington, June 1955, Lawson-Earle.

³Employees rated as "unsatisfactory" who

A Formula Is Born

After considerable discussion with department heads and employee representatives, which saw the development and abandonment of several plans that were designed to recognize both seniority and proficiency but satisfied no one, a plan was finally adopted by the Career Service Board on November 16, 1958.

The formula adopted in the new rule provides that the order of lay-offs should be determined as a result of ranking employees, first by length of service in seniority categories, and then, within each category, by proficiency.⁴ A modified bumping procedure was also included in the rule to protect the senior employee. The formula has been successfully applied since November of 1958 and has survived both litigation and a city-wide reduction-in-force program.

What It Is

The main features of this lay-off rule are:

1. The appointing authority determines the number of employees to be laid off, and the class or classes in which the lay-offs are to occur.
2. The competitive area of lay-off is the appropriation account (which is usually a division of a department).
3. Once the class and the number of employees to be laid off have been determined, the following is the order of lay-off:

Group A—Employees whose total length of service with the city (in any class) is up to one year

Group B—Between one and two years

Group C—Two to four years

Group D—Four to six years

would be the first to go, under such a combination proficiency-seniority plan, would usually be few in number and should, in the normal course of events, either be discharged or motivated to improve their performance in order to acquire a rating of "satisfactory." The large, broad, umbrella-like category of "satisfactory" workers would be rank-ordered by seniority since the proficiency factor had already been taken into account.

⁴The basic idea of grouping employees on a merit basis within "seniority blocks" came out of a conference between the author and a staff member of the Public Personnel Association Secretariat.

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- Group E—Six to eight years
- Group F—Eight to ten years
- Group G—Ten to twelve years
- Group H—Twelve to fifteen years
- Group I—Fifteen years and above.

4. Employees listed under Group A must be laid off before employees listed under Group B, employees in Group B before employees in Group C, etc.
5. Within each group, appointing authorities first list all of the employees in the particular class by length of service with the city. Then the appointing authority places *above* employees with the greatest length of service the most proficient employees, and *below* employees with the least length of service the least proficient employees. This allows for recognition of proficiency within the seniority group.
6. Employees are then laid off in accordance with the rank order finally established by the appointing authority for the group, providing, however, that employees serving in a probationary status shall be laid off before employees with career status.
7. A modified bumping procedure provides that if the employee finally selected to be laid off had acquired his present position by promotion from a position of lower rank in the *same appropriation account*, he is entitled to be demoted in lieu of lay-off. This demotion then is made to a position in the class in which he was previously employed, providing that there is a position of this class in existence in the same appropriation account at the time of the lay-off and providing also that his length of service in this former class is greater than at least one of the present incumbents. If these conditions are met, the employee is demoted and the selection of the new person to be laid off follows the procedure already set forth.

Appointing authorities are required to submit a list containing the rank order of lay-off finally decided upon to the Career Service Authority 20 days before the effective date of lay-off. The Career Service

Authority determines whether or not there has been adherence to the rule and verifies length of service, following which the employee is notified 15 days in advance of the lay-off.

A Compromise Rule

This rule is not fully satisfactory to department heads, who want considerable freedom to identify proficient workers in terms of their current usefulness to the agency's program. Nor is the rule entirely satisfactory to unions who define an employee's usefulness in terms of years of service and emphasize the rights an employee has earned by the virtue of this service.

The rule is frankly a compromise between these points of view. It honors the court ruling that seniority should be of "first consideration"; it provides a place for the consideration of proficiency; and it sets up a formula that can be well understood by employees and equitably applied. It prevents departments from dumping older employees who have served many years with the city government; yet it enables them to discriminate between employees in the same seniority category on the basis of proficiency and current worth to the department.

The rule recognizes the "earned right" of seniority, but only in the procedure of separation—where seniority, in my opinion, has its greatest usefulness. No change was made, or is contemplated, in the promotional machinery which permits departmental latitude in making promotions on the basis of merit and ability, with seniority given lesser consideration.

Successful Maiden Voyage

This formula has now withstood the test of both time and litigation. In January of 1959, the first challenge to this rule occurred when the Career Service Board heard the case of an employee who, through his union, claimed that the board had no authority to concoct such a formula, considering the language of the City Charter and the Supreme Court decision. In this lay-off case, the new rule was adhered to by the department concerned; rank-order lists were reviewed by the Career Service Authority and found to be in order.

After the board ruled in favor of the department, the union took the case to the District Court, which held that the board had adopted a reasonable rule determining seniority of employees. It cited the Supreme Court finding that the courts cannot consider whether the board's findings are right or wrong, where there is competent evidence to support them, and that seniority is of first consideration in determining what employee should be laid off under the rules and regulations of the Career Service Authority.⁵

In the fall of 1959, a financial crisis in city government led to a decision by the administration to lay off over a hundred employees in order to live within the city's income. This lay-off program was spread throughout the various departments of city

government. After it was decided what classes should be affected, determinations were made as to which employees should be laid off. The Career Service rules were strictly adhered to by departments, and all lay-off lists were reviewed by the Career Service Authority.

In all of this procedure, which involved elaborate checks on length of service and considerable discussion with employees and employee groups, only one case was appealed to the Career Service Board (in this case, the union did not participate). The case was decided in favor of the department (which had followed the lay-off rule) and was not taken to the courts.

It appears that the formula used in Denver's lay-off rule not only has succeeded in honoring the ruling of the courts, but has given to management a useful instrument in the determination of lay-offs and to employees a security against arbitrary action.

⁵*Arnold vs. Career Service Board*. District Court, City and County of Denver. Civil Action No. B-30479.

Managers Without Portfolio . . .

One of the great problems today is that of pressuring or even permitting amateur or incompetent managers to use professional management techniques without skill or training. The result is fear, defensiveness, and ridicule of technique by managers, and disastrous impact upon the lives, attitudes, and work of employees.

The assumption that because management is a profession and because a man is a manager he is, therefore, a *professional* manager is fallacious and dangerous. That is like saying, "Law is a profession. This man is a lawyer. Therefore, he is a professional lawyer even though he may never have passed the bar exam or have been authorized to practice."

The next five years will see a dramatic increase in specific, organized activity by managements in the formal certification of managers.—Lawrence A. Appley in *Management News*, September, 1959.

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Practical Ways to Improve Examinations

Dorothy Adkins Wood

An authority on testing shows the way toward test program improvement by cutting out waste motion.

FACED WITH a topic that specifies *practical* ways of improving examinations, one who has survived in the field of personnel selection for a few years is inclined to wince, but on second thought to accept its legitimacy. Let us examine for a moment what the term "practical" typically connotes in the context of seeking improvements in examining programs.

It means, first, that any inquiries or shifts suggested should entail no budgetary changes. If money is involved, it should be available from savings at once effectuated with the alterations.

Second, no additional expenditure of personnel time is envisaged. Any time required must be compensated by temporal savings directly attributable to the new procedures.

Third, no personnel with specialized qualifications who are not already on the staff are contemplated. It might be conceded that some novices could be subjected to special training—if it required no time—or that any innovations could await the demise and replacement of old-timers.

Fourth, certainly no statistical treatment of data more complicated than the pedestrian accumulation of an occasional sum of cross-products could be countenanced.

Fifth, and foremost, the practical suggestions should permit all staff members in both personnel and operating agencies to go about their duties with no impairment to their engrams.

Breaking the Inertia Barrier

Thus, we have the prescription for practical ways of improving examinations: they will cost nothing; they will require no time; they can be carried out by untrained personnel; they will not stoop to statistical

machinations; and, above all, standard operating procedures will reign as before.

For public, tax-supported personnel agencies, these strictures perhaps are not so unreasonable as they appear. Rarely is new money—and hence personnel time—appropriated for attempts to better a personnel selection program unless the probability of improvements is high. Such demonstrations may be feasible through the temporary suspension of certain activities, early savings by means of substitute methods, or the abrupt elimination of unproductive work.

An agency that cannot hire research personnel in new positions can capitalize upon heretofore unused talents and interests of existing personnel. Indeed, it can also take advantage of vacancies that arise in the natural course of events and thus inject new life. Moreover, many of the statistical techniques that would serve our purposes are fairly readily available, and the bulk of the work can be accomplished by well-routinized methods.

Probably, then, the major deterrent to the introduction of better examining techniques lies in the fundamental resistance to change in the persons responsible for day-to-day operations—both those in staff and in line positions. One of Newton's laws, you recall, is that a body at rest tends to remain at rest. This basic inertia somehow must be overcome before progress in improving current practices can be realized. This is not the occasion for dwelling upon this pervasive and troublesome phenomenon, which itself warrants a basic research approach. We note, however, that personnel may become accustomed to change—even proud of it; that direct employee participation renders it much more palatable; and that unimpeachable evidence of increased efficiency is difficult to combat.

Nevertheless, once merit-system princi-

Paper presented at the Southern Regional Conference of the Public Personnel Association, Richmond, Virginia, April 30, 1959.

ples and methods of personnel selection are espoused, departures from familiar practices become especially difficult because it is felt that the confidential nature of an examination may be marred or some applicant may appeal a shift from established routine. The public accepts what we have been doing for the past 20 years; operating agencies are accustomed to the unreasonable strictures of certain procedures; employees like to take promotional examinations even when no vacancies are anticipated. Everybody knows that the higher the qualifications the better the applicants; oral interviews are widely used in industrial personnel selection. In short, we have been getting along all right and any change may jeopardize the merit system. So why rock the boat?

An Opening Wedge

I am convinced, however, that worthwhile progress can be made without endangering any defensible merit-system principles. This can be accomplished by introducing changes as rapidly as they can be assimilated by agency employees. In a practical sense, this must imply improved personnel selection, in the sense of eventual money savings, or results as good as those we otherwise would have had with less time and money expenditure.

Ponder, if you will, the fact that five years ago 58 percent of the current line of Upjohn products were unknown. Then try to recall the prominent innovations in personnel selection tools and techniques in the last five years. Perhaps the field of personnel selection demands a dose of "planned obsolescence!"

A good starting point for such a program would be to survey systematically all examining operations with a view to eliminating all non-productive work. The results of such an approach may be startling.

Consider, for example, a combination of circumstances that I suspect is currently not uncommon for civil service agencies, especially those whose jurisdictions are relatively small: the minimum qualifications for a professional class of positions are high in respect to the salary range, thus very few applicants are recruited; time is said to be at a premium, so that the operating agency

makes a provisional appointment before an examination can be announced, administered, and evaluated; with a handful of applicants and a paucity of previous research, the personnel agency has no adequate basis for establishing a valid passing point on a written test, and hence almost all applicants are assigned passing scores; everyone qualifies on the oral interview; possibly some applicants high on the register are found—I was about to say persuaded—by the operating agency to be unavailable or even unsuitable. Eventually the provisional appointee is certified as being among the top three on the list of available applicants.

If this sequence is repeated time after time for particular classes of positions, the examining agency might better dispense with the written test and the oral interview, at least until some other changes occur. Perhaps salaries should be raised, minimum qualifications should be lowered, results of the administration of the same written test to a number of persons should be accumulated, and/or provisional appointments should not be made within some reasonable time interval after a vacancy becomes known. In any case, unproductive work can be dispensed with until more favorable conditions arise.

Some Suggested Discards

Other illustrations of useless work in personnel selection can be cited. What about the periodic administrations of competitive promotional examinations, including the construction and handling of written tests, regardless of whether vacancies are anticipated? Despite its cost, this is current practice in some jurisdictions. While the inclusion of an objective component in needed promotional examinations may be applauded, it should not be used to mask the operating agency's responsibility for informed employee evaluation.

But also—and more to the point at issue—the expense of construction of a test is justified only when a selection is to be made from the resulting register. The practice of combining registers based upon different, non-equivalent forms of a test, so as not to have to require employees to be tested in order to maintain their standing on the

register, also frequently has little to recommend it.

Even with fully comparable forms, probably no reliance in a competitive situation should be placed upon a test score that is several years old. Much lost motion can be avoided by the practice of giving competitive promotional examinations, like open-competitive examinations, only in the face of anticipated vacancies.

On the other hand, instances arise when the same applicant might well be considered for several related classes of positions for which examinations may not be given at the same time. To require different forms of tests for the same basic aptitudes to be constructed and administered to the same applicants over a brief time interval is wasteful. With sufficient research in advance, scores on their first taking of the test or tests in question can serve, and they will not be distorted by possible practice effects.

Likewise, much time is wasted in poring over training and experience records anew for each examination for which an applicant is being considered. In line with a program I have amplified previously, early attention to recruitment for a career service, with a full evaluation of an applicant's records upon first consideration, will save time later. Moreover, it should add to the validity of the appraisals made.

No doubt many of you can think of other non-productive types of work that personnel selection agencies should abandon, or at least postpone, until they can discover more fruitful alternatives.

Accent the Potential

One aspect of the problem is that the very pattern of our civil service legislation in this country, with the continuing emphasis upon a narrowly interpreted concept of fairness to the applicant and practical tests related to the duties of the job, has led to overconcentration on the immediate job. Our selection programs need to be more concerned with potential abilities of applicants to be hired. This would mean more weight in entrance examinations for basic aptitudes for learning and developing various skills, and less weight for knowledge already acquired. Even for intermediate and higher-level posi-

tions, open-competitive examinations might well give considerable weight to factors of aptitude. Such examinations also might include indices, such as achievement tests, based upon past job performance and education as likely indicators of future achievement potential.

Selection Procedures Need Overhauling

Some of the personnel agency resources saved by discontinuing useless work might profitably be devoted to counseling and guidance of applicants. Thus the goal of the selection staff would become the appropriate placement of well qualified applicants in positions for which they are suited, as contrasted with selection or rejection for a particular class of positions.

Such an approach calls for use of reliable subtest scores rather than a single total score based upon a "hodge-podge of unknown abilities combined at unknown weights," to borrow Thurstone's apt phrase. It also stresses the need for thorough analysis of the abilities required for different classes of positions and the grouping, for examining purposes, of those requiring the same patterns of abilities.

The ubiquitous "rule of three" I would still like to see modified to permit administrative discretion in the choice among a number of applicants who are equally well qualified as far as the total examination results can indicate but who may be unequally suited for a particular vacancy in a particular setting. To insist upon important decisions by coin-flipping in the face of experienced administrative judgment, just because occasionally the judgment is biased or erratic, strikes me as puerile.

By and large, I have a persisting faith that administrators want to select the best possible personnel. I would rather bet on the positive validity of their judgments in differentiating among applicants with tied scores than rest content with the zero validity of chance selection from among them. Thus we have an obligation to be fair to the taxpayer, along with our concern over equitable treatment of the applicant.

The latter concept should mean, of course, not that all possible applicants should have an equal chance for public

employment, but rather that those with more promise have correspondingly greater chances. There is no call to provide equal employment opportunities to applicants who are not equipotential.

Research in Your Own Backyard

In personnel selection, we seem not to have assimilated the striking evidence, known to industry and the military agencies, that research pays off. In the smaller state and municipal agencies, particularly, the problem of getting fully adequate independent criteria of job success against which to measure the validity of examining techniques looms large. Perhaps in giving up entirely on this aspect of selection research we tend also to overlook many other readily accessible research areas. Even the simplest techniques, some of which have been common knowledge for 20 or 30 years, are not applied.

Think of the hundreds of tests given annually without a thought to their reliability. Think of the thousands of test items which have been repeated over and over without any knowledge whatever of their empirical difficulty or their relationship to any criterion—even total test scores. Recall the registers combined on the untested assumption that the tests in question were comparable. Pause at the thought of the constant administration of assumedly comparable tests to the same applicants without any cognizance of possible practice effects. Reflect upon the myriad unverified assumptions applied in setting minimum qualifications and in evaluating education and experience.

What studies of reliability of the basic rating plans or of the application of a single rating plan do you know? What traits can be evaluated effectively in oral interviews? How reliable and valid are the ratings? How many studies do you recall that bear in any way whatever upon the relative weights of various examination components? Countless other questions of this sort will occur to you.

New Look at Some Examining Techniques

To much of our examining work we might well apply a type of thinking that

Professor H. A. Toops used to refer to as the "refutation technique." The starting point is the bold hypothesis that, whatever the current method of doing something, it is wrong. This dispels inhibitions and allows imaginative alternatives to be considered.

It is, of course, not unrelated to the modern brainstorm, although Toops did not insist that no judgment be applied as new suggestions were generated, nor did he envisage the frantic pace of the modern brainstormer. Since this presumably is not supposed to be a one-person brainstorm, I have tried to be somewhat selective in a few ideas about different examining techniques that will follow.

The first concerns the use of oral interviews in a competitive setting. These have been thought to be valuable especially for positions entailing frequent contact with the public. The influential "Standards for a Merit System . . ." of the Federal Security Agency have contained such a principle since their inception. Clearly, no one will deny that personality characteristics, supposedly evaluated by means of interviews, are indeed important to job success.

What happens in practice, however? For the very level of positions for which the interview is regarded as most essential, the competition often is so sparse, especially in view of typically high education and experience requirements, that any applicant who can get to the interview is highly unlikely to be failed. This is especially true because of the lack of confidence among examiners in the reliability and validity of their ratings and the resulting tendency to pass large percentages of applicants, a proclivity that is more pronounced as the number of applicants becomes smaller. Moreover, among the large percentage who are passed, operating agency personnel make the crucial judgments regarding personality characteristics in pre-employment interviews.

When such decisions apply to provisional appointees, an interview as an examination component is almost certain to have no influence whatever. Frank recognition of the waste of time and money in conducting interviews that have no effect on personnel selection and hence no possible validity

calls for their abandonment. As Claude Caldwell puts it, to do nothing is better than to waste money.

Personality Assessment Shaping Up

Even if there is a fair amount of competition for an examination, the examining agency may do well to leave the assessment of personality factors to the operating agencies. This alternative would be most feasible if the rule of three were to be relaxed by law or regulation (as it often is in practice).

Again, if the amount of competition is thought to justify interviews, perhaps boards can be forced to exercise more discrimination than is customary. Forms on which they record judgments on various traits can be supplied and the examining agency can decide how to weight these and where to set passing points. Or boards can be instructed to pass no more than a certain multiple of the number of vacancies; or to rank the applicants in order of merit, with the examining agency transmuting the ranks and assigning final scores.

Another suggestion is that perhaps a searching voucher form can be substituted for the oral interview. Surely, it may be argued, those who have worked closely with an applicant over a period of months or years have a sounder basis for evaluating his personality characteristics, through their knowledge of him in actual work situations, than an artificial interview situation of short duration will provide. The trick will be, of course, to somehow persuade or force persons to make their evaluations available to the examining agency. I am by no means sure how this can be done, but we are working on a draft of such a form in North Carolina.

Aptitudes, Education, Experience

Turning to the evaluation of education and experience, its validity approaches *perfection* as the range of qualifications evaluated becomes greater and greater. It has zero validity for any subgroup of applicants confined to a very narrow range of qualifications. This is true even though this range may be near the optimum level for the particular class of positions, in which case the imposition of the appropriate level

of minimum qualifications itself has positive validity.

Now note, however, that the typical evaluations of education and experience that often continue to give points beyond the optimum level will have *negative* validity. In the latter two situations, of course, we should not be using the indirect appraisals of knowledge and ability that are provided through ratings of education and experience. In some cases, they should be abandoned as wasteful work; in others, the minimum qualifications should be lowered or the scoring system revised.

Probably we all recognize the wisdom of what Mosier and Bean, among others, were stressing a number of years ago: that it is theoretically better to attempt to measure directly the residue of training and experience through tests of current knowledge and judgment and evaluations of current behavior than it is to give equal credits to equal times of survival in educational institutions or work situations. To oversimplify, one who has learned a particular fund of knowledge or set of skills in x years is a better employment risk than one who requires $2x$, $3x$, or $10x$ years to achieve the same degree of competency.

Persons of high native endowments to begin with typically gain considerably more from a given amount of education or experience than those with lesser aptitudes. How, then, can we rationally equate equal amounts of time that have had quite different effects? We have learned to circumvent this problem with reasonable effectiveness for clerical classes and certain entrance professional or non-clerical classes. But most of us are not fully confident of these same solutions for higher-level classes. As the Ph.D. student says, "Further research is needed."

Weather Eye on the Labor Market

The problem is further complicated by the fact that the ways of evaluating time-serving in any particular level of job doubtless should vary with the labor market. In the present situation, the regression line of predicted job competence on length of experience for any particular level of job probably soon reaches its maximum point

and then becomes negative. With much more competition, the maximum point would be reached later and the line might even flatten out instead of becoming negative in slope. In any event, the question of appropriate crediting of different numbers of years of education and experience should be raised periodically as the character of the labor market changes.

Parenthetically, we may note at this point that whenever competition is virtually nonexistent, as it doubtless is now for many lines of work, time and money should not be wasted on *any* types of examining devices that cannot be expected to have positive validity. We in civil service agencies might better all follow the practice of the U.S. Civil Service Commission in recognizing critical shortage areas and permitting on-the-spot hiring of persons who meet reasonably low minimum qualifications until such time as the labor market may shift.

Even in such areas, and in others for which competition may be keener, groundwork for some needed research can be laid. Various schemes for evaluating education and experience for at least a few classes can be analyzed to define the several hypotheses that they entail. Note that we refer to hypotheses—not to immutable assumptions. These will be ready to test whenever the time is appropriate for assembling the necessary data. Thus we should be prepared to explore the validity of principles too readily accepted for many years.

Busy-Work Roadblocks

Returning to more familiar terrain—the written test—before it can be improved, somebody's desk for some of his time has to be swept clear of the never-ending assortment of busy-work that tends to enmesh the harassed test technician. He is haunted by deadlines, writing last-minute items, arranging frantically for their review, selecting items, goading on the typist, proofreading, planning announcements, getting off directions to monitors, making last-minute arrangements for scoring, shuffling papers, answering questions, asking questions. Details will differ, depending upon the size of program and organizational structure.

But the point is that no time is allotted to

reflection, and thinking must be done if tests are to be improved. We have already suggested some of the useless work that can be eliminated to provide sufficient time for a start on a program of general examination improvement. Some of the needed research on the written test should itself be designed to save time—perhaps, in the long run, more than that needed for a research program.

The problem of obtaining a reliable external criterion against which to assess validity plagues us here as with any other validity studies. Typical service ratings being useless, substitutes must be found. Sometimes special ratings are substantially more effective. In certain situations, they may also present insurmountable problems, and one turns to more objective indices of job success, perhaps related to salary attained.

North Carolina Project

I shall describe one type of study that has recently been planned collaboratively by the State Personnel Board and the State Merit System Council in North Carolina, for the purpose of developing an improved plan for examining applicants for clerical positions. A number of persons participated in this project, but the burden of it rested principally upon Mr. Hiram Casebolt and Mr. William Pace.

We were concerned with the following classes of positions: Clerk I, Typist-Clerk I, Stenographer-Clerk I, Clerk II, Typist-Clerk II, and Stenographer-Clerk II. Salaries for the Grade I classes differ slightly but not materially. Those for the Grade II classes differ appreciably from those for Grade I, but not much among themselves.

Looking first at the knowledge test, we found 150 items, in such areas as English usage, vocabulary, reading, punctuation, and so on, grouped in blocks of 5, 10, or 15 items. One hundred items were common to all classes and constituted the entire knowledge test for two of the lower classes, Clerk I and Typist-Clerk I.

The Stenographer-Clerk I test contained in addition 10 more vocabulary items, while the Stenographer-Clerk II test included these plus 5 on office procedures and 15 proof-

reading items. The Typist-Clerk II test used these last 20 items but not the 10 extra vocabulary items, while the Clerk II test contained none of them but rather 10 more arithmetic and 10 more English usage items.

Not all of these differences bore up well under rational analysis. Moreover, so many of the applicants wanted to be considered for several of the classes that many had to take more than the basic 100 items and others all of the 150 items. No attempt was made to enforce a time limit, so that the total administration time was about 2½ to 3 hours.

Goal: Shorter Test—Less Time

We decided to investigate the feasibility of shortening the tests so that the entire booklet could be given in no longer than 1½ hours and, in particular, to explore the question of a single set of items for all applicants. As a part of this program, 170 applicants were asked to answer all of the items, it being made clear which would count for each class, however.

In the lack of a criterion of on-the-job performance, the highest class for which each applicant met minimum qualifications was used, Stenographers being treated as highest, Typists as intermediate, and Clerks as lowest. Thus a hierarchy of six classes was established, with each applicant assigned to a single one for our purpose even though he might be qualified for several lower classes as well.

A score matrix was constructed, consisting of the scores of each of the 170 subjects on each of the 16 blocks of items. Space for subtotals for each position class was provided. From these data, frequency distributions were made of the scores on each block of items for each class. With only two or three reversals, the mean scores for each of the 16 blocks of items increased progressively from each of the six classes to the next higher class. This indicated that all of the blocks had positive validity for the type of criterion we had adopted.

As an alternative to a more elaborate analysis of variance technique, the classes were divided into two approximately equal groups, consisting of the three lower and the three upper classes. The group means for each item block were next compared.

Fifteen of the mean differences were significant at better than the 1 percent level, and one at the 2 percent level.

Validity Maintained

Since some of the blocks of items had larger and more significant mean differences than others, what appeared to be the most promising blocks were selected to constitute a test of 100 items. Frequency distributions for this composite were prepared for each applicant group, the score of each person now being included in the frequency distribution for each class of positions for which he had applied and met minimum qualifications. As you might suppose, the mean scores on these 100 items increased progressively from the lowest class to the highest, although of course the distributions overlapped and the mean for Stenographer-Clerk I was about the same as that for Clerk II.

A different kind of check was made against the possibility that shortening the tests might seriously reduce the effectiveness of the knowledge test for one or more of the classes. For the samples of all of the applicants for each class, score on the selected 100 items was correlated with score on the originally designated set of from 100 to 150 items for that class. These correlations ranged from .91 to .97, which provided the assurance sought.

Thus evidence was obtained of the validity of the original 150 items. Probably the validity for most if not all classes was increased by selection of the most discriminating blocks of items. Moreover, the new 100-item test, common to all classes, saves an hour of testing time and greatly reduces the complexities of administration and scoring. Eventually, economies in item construction, selection, assembling, and printing will also be evident.

Plans for the Future

Currently under way is a study of the feasibility of shortening the clerical speed test (the rate-of-work test supplied by the State Merit System Services Agency), for which we are obtaining separate scores on three successive five-minute intervals.

Work is also being undertaken to reduce the administration and scoring time of our typing and stenographic performance tests, consisting of plain copy, rough draft, and dictation exercises at 80 and 100 words per minute. Plans include an investigation of the reliability of the accuracy score on the plain copy test, the more difficult exploration of the reliability of the rough draft test, and study of the relations of these tests with each other and with the written knowledge and clerical speed tests.

Possibly the length of the clerical speed test can be reduced and the rough draft test eliminated—a step that already has been taken elsewhere, perhaps mainly on the basis of arm-chair decision. So far our ideas about dictation tests have not jelled sufficiently for presentation here.

In other areas, the State Personnel Board has made considerable progress in its program of developing basic aptitude batteries. While some commercially available tests will continue to be used, the project has included preliminary tryout of several hundred items on groups of 200 high school seniors, reliability studies, analysis of item difficulty and of the discriminating power of each alternative, and the selection of

items for alternate forms. While work remains to be done in finding the relations among the various tests and in collecting norms and, hopefully, validity data for various groups, preparation for increased use of aptitude tests appears to be in keeping with the times.

Reprise

In this paper, the attempt has been made to offer a somewhat loosely organized sampling of ideas looking toward possible improvements in examining techniques and practices and of situations in which I recently have had the privilege of participating in some on-going attacks on this basic problem. It has been argued that some of our procedures are hangovers from earlier times that no longer are appropriate under current employment conditions.

The point has been emphasized that changes are feasible when valuable personnel resources are not devoted to work that serves no useful purpose. Your concurrence in all of the suggestions offered is scarcely to be anticipated. But I dare to hope that next week you will look askance at some archaic procedure and institute some planned obsolescence of your own.

Never Underestimate the Older Applicant . . .

From time to time it appears that, while we do not in any way discriminate in the testing process against applicants on account of age, many supervisors and their appointing authorities in making selections tend to downgrade the older applicant. We feel that in many cases this could be extremely shortsighted. A recent report from the Department of Labor in Washington points out that in the office worker field, the "older worker" in comparison with the "youngsters" have proven to "have lower rates of absenteeism and turnover, be more consistent in their performance, and frequently produce at a faster rate." Many of us might profitably keep this in mind.—Excerpt from the Los Angeles City Civil Service Commission Monthly Report, January, 1960.

Flexible Certification: The Ventura County System

Mahlon Turner and David English

A shift to a "rule of three scores" and its effect on the selection process.

MANY ADMINISTRATORS, civil service commissioners, and personnel people point to the certification procedure as the very "guts" of the merit principle; that is, without a definite, detailed method to assure that only the top candidates are employed, the merit system could be effectively bypassed.

Our knowledge of the criterion of "success" for a particular job, and of the predictors of achieving this "success," is very limited. Consequently, the common "rule of three" procedure is based upon what we consider to be a false premise; namely, that the testing program does accurately determine who is the best person for the job. We feel also that how an employee fits into the work group does have an important impact on the job success of both the employee, his colleagues, and his supervisor. Therefore, the interpersonal factor should be considered in the employment process.

The basic question is how to balance these three variables: (1) the need for administrative control over selection of persons, (2) low validity of our examining process, and (3) the department's need to consider its environmental situation in employing its personnel. For our agency, the answer was to modify our "rule of three" by rounding off our final scores to the nearest whole number and certifying ties.

Ventura County Civil Service Rules

Following is the text of our rules, which gives a quick overview of present practice.

Article I (Definitions)

Standing: The position of each person on an eligible list fixed in accordance with his final examination score, reinstatement date or re-

employment status, as the case might be. All persons having the same score, reinstatement date, or re-employment status, as the case might be, shall be given the same standing.

Article III, Section 9.5 (Examination Scores)

The final examination score shall be rounded off to the nearest whole number.

Article V, Section 3 (Certification)

Upon receipt of the appointing authority's request for certification the Personnel Director shall immediately furnish him the names and addresses of the eligibles having the three highest standings on the eligible lists.

Whenever there is more than one vacancy in one class in the same department for which the appointing authority requests certification, the minimum number of names to be submitted in the foregoing procedure shall be increased by the number of additional vacancies (i.e. in the event there are two vacancies, the Personnel Director shall submit the names of the persons having the four highest standings).

AN ILLUSTRATION OF HOW THE "RULE OF THREE SCORES" WORKS

Candidates	Unadjusted Scores	Rounded-Off Scores
A	92.67	93
B	91.67	92
C	91.67	92
D	91.00	91
E	90.67	91
F	89.17	89
G	87.00	87
H	87.00	87
I	86.00	86
J	85.33	85
K	85.00	85
L	84.83	85
M	84.83	85
N	84.67	85
O	84.33	84
P	84.17	84
Q	84.00	84

R	83.33	83
S	83.00	83
T	83.00	83
U	82.17	82
V	81.50	82
W	80.83	81

(1) 35 passed, 24 failed the examination. (2) 1st Certification (previous rules) A, B, C (top three names). (3) 1st Certification (new rules) A, B, C, D, E (top three scores). (4) If A is appointed by another department, C waives, F is inactive, then B, D, E, G, and H (next top three scores) would be certified (new rules). (5) If A, B, C, F, G, H are appointed, inactive, removed from the list, waived, etc., then D, E, I, J, K, L, M, N (next top three scores) would be certified (new rules).

Five Months Hence

With five months' actual experience in operating under what we term our "rule of three scores," we have found that about one third of the certifications involve three people, more candidates are certified as lower scores are drawn upon, eligible lists are "used up" somewhat more rapidly, and only about 3 percent of the actual appointments are below those who would have eventually been certified under the old rule of three. Table I, at the end of this article, shows a statistical breakdown of the actual experience during the last half of 1959 in operating under this policy.

Our experience indicates that the "rule of three scores" enables the appointing authority to select from more than three persons, provides the candidates with a greater opportunity to compete for the job in the final selection phase, and gives the civil service department control over certification.

We believe that the "rule of three scores" has a future. It is practical from the standpoint of the appointing authority and the

Editor's Note: For additional discussions of the broad issues of certification, see the following items in the April, 1956, issue of *Public Personnel Review*: Dorothy C. Adkins, "A Flexible 'Rule of Three' for Public Personnel Selection" (pp. 63-66); "Personnel Opinions" section (pp. 92-95); U. S. Civil Service bibliography on "Certification of Eligible Lists in the Public Service" (pp. 96-98).

personnel department, and more equitable to the candidate. Other civil service agencies which find themselves in need of greater flexibility and maintaining control may find our solution useful.

For serious consideration or for fun, try a hypothetical "rule of three scores" on your agency. Take some of your eligible lists, round off the scores, and determine the number of persons who would be certified. Any possibilities?

TABLE I

RULE OF THREE SCORES
COUNTY OF VENTURA
(Jul. 19 to Dec. 11, 1959)

Names certified per vacant position* expressed as a percentage:

Names	Percent
1	6%
2	5
3	33
4	19
5	15
6	8
7	14
	100%

Average number of names certified per vacant position:

No. vacant positions	147
No. persons certified	423
Names per vacancy	2.9

Average size of certification:

No. certifications	106
No. persons per certification	4.0

Largest certification:

No. names	15
No. vacant positions	4

Largest certification for one vacant position. .6

Total appointments made

Number persons appointed who would not have been certified under old rule of three:

No. persons	4
Percentage	3%

Total average permanent employment ... 1,440

* If 6 names certified for two open positions, the statistics were counted as 6 for one vacancy and 5 for the other vacancy.

Human Relations Revisited

Edwin E. Ghiselli

What human relations research has revealed should whet our appetite for exploring a whole new set of questions.

THERE ARE THOSE who believe that it was in the immediate post-World War II era that human relations, like Venus, burst forth full born bringing us love. But the fact of the matter is that human relations has a long history which, in terms of scientific approaches, goes back some forty years. Therefore, while it is true that during the past fifteen years there has been a great increase in the amount and variety of work done in this area, by the test of time alone, human relations should have reached maturity. There is available to us, then, a great body of material findings and of principles for effective action.

Yesterday's Answers—Today's Questions

The early questions about the determiners of the behavior of human beings in formal groups and in institutional settings led us to a search for facts and principles. It seems to me that we have reached a point where we should now be asking ourselves further questions—questions about objectives, purposes, and meanings.

In science—particularly in the social and administrative sciences, though undoubtedly also in the "hard" sciences—research is initiated by a series of questions for which we seek answers. We conduct the indicated research and obtain some factual findings. These findings in and of themselves may be solid enough as facts and certainly contribute to our general knowledge about the world. But we also gain new perspectives from our efforts so that what we anticipated as results now appears to be of somewhat lesser importance. Rather these new per-

spectives cause us to ask a new set of questions—questions that perhaps are related only at the level of second cousin to the original set of questions.

We are, I believe, past asking ourselves "What is or are human relations?" We have had great fun giving both serious and facetious answers to this question. Our researches have indicated what we have known all along—that man's social environment affects him in important ways and is a means for both satisfying man's needs and denying their satisfaction.

We have multiplied the examples of these effects and we know many of the specific social correlates of them. Our empirical studies of the nature of the world have told us much about it. We have discovered that oranges are round, that stones are hard, that the job level of an individual determines the darkness of the suit he wears and whether or not he will sit in a chair with arms, and that democratically operated groups produce a wider variety of ideas than do groups operated on an autocratic basis.

Knowing all of these things has not satisfied us. "Where," we ask, "do these facts lead us and what do they mean?" So we begin to ask ourselves first of all a series of questions having to do with purposes and objectives.

Morale, Satisfaction, and Happiness

A colossal number of studies have been centered on the topic of the morale, satisfaction, and happiness of the individual in his organization. We know, for example, that the extent to which an individual is permitted to participate in the decision-making process of his organization and the amount of responsibility given him are di-

This article is adapted from a paper presented by the author at a meeting of the San Francisco Chapter of the American Society for Public Administration.

rectly related to the level of his morale, satisfaction, and happiness. Does this mean we should insist on participation and delegation of authority in organizations?

Now we must ask "What purposes are served by having workers who are happy, satisfied, and with high morale?" Does such a situation result in an organization which operates more effectively? Will raising the morale of a worker make him a better producer? I fear that ordinarily we assume the answers to these questions to be affirmative and disregard the nature of the evidence.

Certainly numerous studies have been made which showed that work groups with high morale, satisfaction, and happiness are by and large likely also to be more productive. But by no means does this positive relationship always hold. One can find many highly productive work groups made up of very discontented individuals. The slave workers under the Nazi regime had an excellent production record, but I think it safe to say they were not entirely happy. You will object that this is an extreme case—but nonetheless it is a case in point.

If one examines the published data concerning ordinary work groups in this country, the relationship is never perfect, even though on the average one finds high-morale groups to be more productive than low-morale groups. Hence, there are always groups which do not follow the general trend—there are high-morale groups with low productivity and low-morale groups with high productivity. Shall we throw such groups out with the Nazi slave workers just because they do not fit the general rule?

Furthermore, when we carefully examine the results of these studies we find that, while there is a substantial relationship between the morale of groups and their productivity, no such relationship occurs when we consider individuals. So, while we can predict on better than a chance basis that a high-morale group will also be productive, we cannot make this same kind of prediction in the case of individuals.

The Chicken or the Egg?

The mechanisms relating morale and satisfaction to productivity are by no means clear. Indeed, we cannot say with certainty

whether it is high morale that causes high productivity or whether it is high productivity that causes high morale. Therefore, we can challenge the soundness of the notion that if we can make the members of an organization happy and satisfied we will increase the effectiveness of the operation of that organization. As a matter of fact, in some instances we may even reduce productivity by making workers too satisfied.

Just as we now challenge morale, satisfaction, and happiness of workers as being the only or even the prime determiners of the effectiveness with which an organization operates, so we also challenge other similar factors. We ask ourselves whether human-relations programs of any sort have a real effect upon the productivity of an organization.

We recall again and again and again the results of the Hawthorne experiment which led to the establishment of the human-relations programs of interviewing and counseling of workers. But we forget that, in spite of these programs, the workers struck on several occasions—and the strikes could not be attributed to the actions of irresponsible labor leaders. The workers had grievances which seemed very real to them despite the fact that their personal dissatisfactions and happiness were in the tender care of psychological and sociological counselors.

Is Everybody Happy?

But let us not throw the baby out with the bath. Even if human-relations programs, participation in the decision-making process, sharing of authority, and the like, result only in making workers satisfied and not necessarily more productive, does this mean that such programs and procedures have no value at all? Is there anything wrong with making people happy? Even if happiness does not make workers more productive, reduce labor turnover, minimize strikes, or eliminate wastage, is it not a worthy objective to increase the satisfaction and happiness of each other in this so fallible world?

So we might say that the development of high morale, satisfaction, and happiness are just as worthy objectives as is high productivity. Whether morale, satisfaction, and happiness have any bearing upon produc-

tivity, then, could be considered to be quite unimportant. Consequently, what we had thought of as means to a particular end now becomes an end in and of itself. So, broadening our perspectives from the research that we have done, what we had taken as procedures and purposes begin to be perceived as objectives.

Granting this, we can carry the thing still further. If participation and authority are means for achieving the objectives of high morale, why not conceive of them, too, as objectives rather than as means? Indeed, can one not say that when an individual participates in decision making and exercises authority he is thereby expressing himself as a human being? And is not self-realization as an individual a proper objective in and of itself whether or not it leads to high morale, satisfaction, and happiness? And so we could go on and on conceiving of means as proper objectives.

Let me hasten to say I do not mean that our thinking has led us to an argument of *reductio ad absurdum*, although it does appear at times that those who seem to regard human relations as a kind of spiritual movement are led to some very curious conclusions. Perhaps you have heard the slogan of certain educators who have proclaimed, "Togetherness in the classroom means better citizenship."

Rather, what I am saying is that we have come to a point in the history of work in the area of human relations where we are again restating our objectives and, as a consequence, our problems. These new questions perhaps are as fuzzy as our first ones were. But they are questions of a different sort. To a considerable extent they pertain to social values.

We ask ourselves questions such as the following: Is an effective organization one that is productive, or is it one which survives? Is it sufficient to say that our task is to discover ways and means for making workers, supervisors, and administrators satisfied and happy, or should we say that our task is to discover ways and means for making workers, supervisors, and administrators responsible members of the human race with all the due dignity of such a position in the broad scope of affairs?

Human-Relations Training for All

I have, perhaps, led you a long chase around the barn and back again in order to make a point. So it is time that I made it. Instead of seeing human relations as being concerned solely with the development of greater productivity through greater worker satisfaction and contentment, we are now seeing it as being concerned with a whole series of problems some of which pertain to the organization and some to the individual.

So we are concerned with the development of more cohesive work groups because cohesion in and of itself provides a desirable stability. We are concerned with the minimizing of conflict within work groups because in and of itself conflict is an undesirable state of affairs. We are concerned with self-realization because we are dealing with human beings who have a special place and role in the world. We may not be able to define cohesiveness, conflict, and self-realization clearly and succinctly, but at least we see their importance in terms of objectives of human relations.

No longer do we simply ask what types of human-relations training should be given to superiors so that they will be in a better position to understand and appreciate the problems and frustrations of their subordinates. We see that those in the so-called superior positions—the foremen, the department heads, and even the top brass—also are people who feel and bleed.

We now ask whether we should not provide human-relations training to subordinates so that they will be in a better position to understand and appreciate the problems and frustrations of their superiors. Indeed, I was recently told on very poor authority that an airline was considering a human-relations training program for their regular clients. Certainly those of us who are public employees often wish there were a human-relations training program for the public!

All This and Productivity Too

While we recognize that there are many objectives of human relations other than productivity, we do not deny the importance of productivity as a proper objective in our modern society. On the contrary, we

have in recent years given considerable attention to the mechanics of the decision-making process and to the kinds of organizational structures which relate directly to the effectiveness with which organizations operate.

We are not as willing as we once were to regard as cold and inhuman the industrial leader who, speaking about a human-relations program proposed for his company, said "Let them be happy on their own time. They are here to work." Similarly, the lesson taught by Parkinson's first law does not escape us. We realize that it is more than a delightful parody.

Please do not misunderstand me—I am not saying that all things are now clear and the fuzzy questions of the past are replaced with distinctly formulated issues. Certainly we are not in a position as yet to weigh and evaluate the various objectives in terms of each other. Undoubtedly it will never be possible to achieve both maximum organizational effectiveness and worker satisfaction at the same time. But we can do our best.

The Glove Doesn't Fit All Hands

I have spent a good deal of time on the matter of objectives since it seems to me to be of paramount importance. But let me now turn to some questions of other sorts. I shall not treat them as extensively, though they do pose some puzzling problems.

As a result of more recent research findings, some of us are beginning to question the generality of the findings in the area of human relations. We are beginning to wonder about the extent to which the findings with groups of one kind can be expected to hold with groups of another kind, and the extent to which the findings with respect to a particular group hold for the individuals who comprise it.

You will recall that a good deal of the early research in human relations was done with groups composed of other than adult workers. Thus, many of the basic principles of human relations were established from the findings with all sorts of odds and ends of people. It is not surprising, therefore, to find that more recent research has in a number of instances failed to confirm these earlier findings.

We have come to realize that the group dynamics of a Boy Scout camp is not necessarily the group dynamics of the steel mill. Therefore we are unwilling to say that the circumstances leading to satisfaction, isolation of individuals, and the selection of informal leaders are precisely the same in both situations. Nor are we willing to say that being a scapegoat or an isolate in a Boy Scout camp has the same deleterious effect upon the personality of the individual as being a scapegoat or an isolate in a steel mill.

Similarly, we have seen that the motivations and needs of cooperating mothers in a nursery school are quite different from those of the members of the planning staff in a governmental agency. Therefore, we know that the ways which are effective in influencing the goal-oriented behavior of the one group may well be quite ineffective in influencing the goal-oriented behavior of the other.

I should also point out, in this connection, that we are beginning to question the practice of generalizing from the group to the individual members of that group. More recently, some attention—though in my opinion not enough—has been given to the differences among individuals. By and large we have accepted averages as quite adequate descriptions of all members of a group. This has led us to some quite sweeping generalizations about, for example, the importance and need for participation in the decision-making process and for human-relations-oriented supervisors.

In dealing with averages we have ignored several facts: that some individuals are quite unhappy when they are made to participate in the decision-making process; that many workers frankly dislike working under a human-relations-oriented supervisor; and that many prefer a production-oriented boss. We also now know that such departures from the general rule are not necessarily by people who are emotionally immature or rigid in personality, as human-relations-oriented people used to claim. They may be as normal as you and I—and in fact they may be you and I.

So our questioning of the generality of the findings in human relations research has made us more cautious and conservative.

While we can accept the facts as facts, we recognize that they do not necessarily apply in all situations.

Beware the Outmoded Concept

We are now also beginning to question certain of the basic concepts and definitions in human relations. Concepts that we have accepted as meaningful when made the subject of more careful empirical investigation have turned out to be far less clear than we believed.

Let me give but one example. We have denounced authoritarian leadership and have proclaimed its democratic counterpart. The one we consider always and necessarily bad and the other always and necessarily good. But without in any way renouncing our democratic ideals, we now see that what we have termed black is not always and necessarily black and what we have termed white is not always and necessarily white.

What has been labeled autocratic leadership, we now know, is sometimes merely acceptance of responsibility when the group itself is irresponsible. What has been labeled democratic leadership sometimes is nothing more or less than anarchy and revolt. We are coming to see that the giving of a direct order is not necessarily a manifestation of autocratic leadership, but may be a needed instruction to people who do not know what to do. We are also beginning to accept that the leader who insists that his subordinates participate in the decision-making process is not necessarily a democratic leader, but may be an insecure person unable to take responsibility.

My example of autocratic-versus-democratic leadership may be poorly chosen, but perhaps you see my point. We are questioning the clarity of many concepts we have used so widely and uncritically, such as cooperation, satisfaction, security, self-actualization, and, of course, leadership. The nebulous nature of these concepts has led us into many a trap.

Leave Psychiatry to the Psychiatrists!

Let me finally turn to questions of a different sort that are being raised about the application of human-relations procedures. These are questions of an ethical nature.

Human-relations research has shown that many of the deeper motivations—unconscious drives and feelings, and the like—have important bearings upon the satisfaction and productivity of workers. Therefore, in human-relations training, particularly in the training of supervisors, increasing emphasis is being given to the development of diagnostic skills and to an understanding of the more fundamental psychodynamics.

Now none of us likes nosey people, be they neighbors or supervisors. Yet in our human-relations training programs we are stressing more and more that the supervisors must get inside the person of his subordinate if he is to be a good supervisor. Hence, some are beginning to say that human-relations supervision by its very nature violates the privacy of the individual. It is one thing for a psychiatrist to ask me about my innermost feelings and desires and the details of my sex life. But, by golly, these matters are no business of my department head!

Even though I am a psychologist, I am very chary about poking inside the psyches of others. I do not believe that I have either the background or training. This sort of stuff is for psychiatrists and clinical psychologists. So how can we expect a person, who functions principally in an administrative position, to be equally as competent as a psychiatrist or clinical psychologist only as the result of a three-day training program in human relations? The answer is, of course, that he cannot.

As a consequence of inadequate training, supervisors trying to be human-relations oriented have done a great deal of harm. This has led to a considerable amount of rethinking about the role of the supervisor as a human-relations expert. While we have not solved the problem, we are at least now aware of the considerable dangers.

Return to Human-Relations Normalcy

I suppose it would be fair to say that I have "talked a great deal and said very little." Furthermore, what I have had to say about human relations could be termed critical. But I am convinced this is necessary. It is my belief that the great gains in productivity and in organizational effectiveness will come, not through the use of employee

selection procedures, job training, or improvement in working conditions and methods of work, but rather through the tapping of man's greater inner resources. This, it seems to me, is the role of human relations.

Consequently, we must beware of the "fuzzy thinkers," the "do-gooders," and the

"softies" who have been so taken by the field of human relations. These people lead us down the golden path to nowhere. In addition, I believe human relations should have our utmost attention and the best of our talents because it is the only means I can see which will bring us into harmony with each other in our daily working lives.

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research and results

edited by Cecil E. Goode

BLUEPRINT FOR PUBLIC PERSONNEL RESEARCH

LATE LAST YEAR the National Planning Association published *An Agenda for Research in Public Personnel Administration*.¹ The co-authors of this publication, Wallace S. Sayre and Frederick C. Mosher, have condensed within the covers of this publication a challenging array of research targets. The modest size of this pamphlet belies its fundamental importance to the public personnel field now and for many years to come.

In their *Agenda* Messrs. Sayre and Mosher set forth a balanced outline of needed fundamental research on the problems of personnel administration in government. John Miller says in his foreword:

Most observers of the American public service—federal, state, and local—have noted a definite slowing down in the movement for its improvement, which had a strong resurgence in the 'thirties and 'forties. At the same time, the problems connected with its vast expansion in numbers and functions in our society have multiplied and become more pressing.

And I think he is right.

I concluded in my own research on personnel research that the political scientists and teachers of public administration, who should be the chief needlers for perfecting the art, have little interest now in personnel administration. Almost without exception the few political scientists who are performing outstanding personnel research are doing it under some other banner. Usually they leave personnel administration to the psychologists, sociologists or institutes of industrial relations.

Perhaps this *Agenda* will revive an interest in the study of government conditions, processes, and purposes, with par-

ticular concern for the people who make up government. I join John Miller in hoping "that such research will contribute in the decade ahead to the taking of important and needed steps forward in improving the public service."

Conference on the Public Service

The Sayre-Mosher outline has resulted from some thoroughgoing, seminar-type analyses that have been going on for the past four years or so by a group of thinkers called the Conference on the Public Service. This Conference was initiated by the Carnegie Corporation and the Ford Foundation in the hope of keeping alive the intelligent questioning of the public service that was revived by the second Hoover Commission, and of determining courses of action.

This group, composed of outstanding scholars and public administrators, met initially in Princeton, New York, and Washington. Now it is meeting for occasional week-end sessions at the Brookings Institution in Washington with the financial help of the Carnegie Corporation. My own study of personnel research efforts and resources² was conceived by the Conference, and now this *Agenda* is the result of the Conference's deliberations.

Personnel Panorama

The authors conceive the study of personnel administration as much broader than the researchers in private personnel administration consider their field. "Public personnel administration," they point out, "shares with all governmental institutions a deep involvement in the whole culture in which they operate." Research in public

¹ *An Agenda for Research in Public Personnel Administration*. By Wallace S. Sayre and Frederick C. Mosher. National Planning Association, Washington, D. C., 1959. vii, 64 pp. \$1.50.

² Cecil E. Goode, *Personnel Research Frontiers* (Chicago: Public Personnel Association, 1958).

personnel administration should, therefore, include questions about the larger setting of the government itself. To this end, the *Agenda* suggests research areas and problems in the general governmental and political setting before going into questions of personnel organization and functions, careers, and public attitudes toward the public service.

A good case has been made by the authors for placing public personnel administration in broad perspective, but they may, even so, have unduly limited the field of research. Not only is public personnel administration inextricably intertwined with the broader governmental and political setting, but it is also involved in the social and economic setting.

For example, the appeal of the public service, the caliber of people it will obtain, and the nature of the work force and work to be done will depend on what we do about some of the social, economic, and technical problems facing our society. How about the trend toward automation in government as well as business? How about the population growth and the increase in the span of life, the rising educational level, the increase of leisure time, and the continuously increasing scope and magnitude of government in our economy?

Especially Pertinent Questions

The *Agenda* contains many questions for research. Without implying that some are unimportant, I should like to underscore certain ones because, in my judgment, they are timely or have been too long ignored.

Consideration of Basic Assumptions. The methods and practices in personnel administration have, to a considerable extent, developed from a series of underlying assumptions. Many, if not all, of these assumptions have not been amply tested. Use has tended to hallow them so that it has not been considered necessary to test them. Examples of these are:

1. There is a surplus of qualified candidates for each government position and they are eager for government jobs.
2. Every citizen in the labor market has the right to compete for a government position.
3. The principle of equal pay for equal work is a desirable managerial goal and results in high employee morale.

Recently John W. Macy, Jr., advocated to the reviewer a fundamental new look at the merit system: "We should do a basic rethinking of the merit system. Is the present concept proper for the present time, and if not, what should be embraced in its place? I think of this undertaking under the title, 'The Merit System Revisited.'"

Inventory of Public Personnel Agencies. It is pointed out that many of the research questions raised depend for their answers on more complete factual information about governmental personnel activities than is now available. An inventory actually is proposed of basic information about the organization, scope, and content of the personnel function in all governments. The National Civil Service League proposes to make a study along this line, if suitable financing is obtained. Such an inventory would be made as a necessary fact-finding prelude to a series of new model laws and ordinances for various levels of government.

Evaluation of Public Personnel Programs. The authors point out that evaluation is essential, but that this depends upon suitable, agreed-upon criteria. Such criteria have not been developed. There may even be conflicting goals, such as elimination of spoils, technical program excellence, responsiveness to the public and to the administration, and advancement of public employees' own interests. This study might also include a fundamental consideration of the various organizational forms for personnel administration. For example, it has not been demonstrated whether or not the semi-independent commission produces better results when measured against other than the anti-spoils criterion.

Study of Career Systems. The public service is becoming increasingly interested in career systems—as, for example, the Senior Civil Service proposal. Yet the more recognized career systems are relatively closed and monopolistic in character. It would be informative and possibly helpful to make case studies of many of the career systems now in existence so that we may be in a better position to consider what would be desirable attributes for governmental career systems.

Teachers and Scientists. At the present time in our national life we are very much concerned about our ability to produce a sufficient quantity of able school teachers and scientists. Public school teachers have not considered themselves as civil servants,

although they are employed by government; and scientists have tended to shy away from government service even when they may be in fact employed on government projects. The federal government now underwrites about 60 percent of all scientific research in the country, but the majority of the scientists, even though their work is supported by government funds, remain in private laboratories or educational institutions.

Labor-Management Relations. Sayre and Mosher point out that most elements of public personnel practice have developed without reference to employee organization. To some extent there has been an underlying assumption that employees would not or should not organize, or, if they would, the character of their organization would be different from that of private employment. This is one of the most unsettled and currently evolving areas of public personnel policy that we face. The National Civil Service League now has in progress a study by a representative committee of government, business, education, and union representatives that is coming to grips with the problems in this area.

Veterans Preference. The authors point out that veterans preference in public service antedates the merit system itself, and has developed as an almost universal corollary of the merit system even though it is a force tending to negate it. This is an emotional area in which it is difficult to do objective research, but it needs to be done.

Attitudes Toward Public Personnel Management. There have been a number of studies on attitudes of the public toward government, but none has been made of attitudes toward public personnel management. This would be valuable for making the public personnel program more palatable. Also, it may give insight as to the influence of public personnel processes on the total image the public has of government.

In Conclusion

The authors of the *Agenda* have presented an outline of fundamental and thoughtful research across the full range of

the public personnel subject matter, including the general governmental and political setting of which it is a part. In one or two places I had a fleeting impression that they were overly concerned with form rather than substance, as in the suggested study of the rule-making process. On second thought, I concluded that this would probably be a desirable study since laws and rules are so important in government—and in public personnel administration in particular.

Some may feel that the research outline is designed to intrigue the academic mind rather than the mind of the practitioners; that the results will be of interest to academicians but of little interest and use to the practitioners. To this I counter with the observation that we have been concerned too much in recent years with inconsequential minutiae rather than with the big questions. If we do not ask big questions we will not get big answers!

I see three major results to be hoped for from the publication and use of the Sayre-Mosher *Agenda*:

1. It will remind practitioners that not all questions in public personnel administration have been answered. It will remind them, too, how broad the subject matter of the field really is. While practitioners will not actually do much of the research outlined, they can greatly influence it getting done and be of assistance in supplying the material for study.
2. It will provide students and faculty members of colleges and universities with a carefully thought-through list of research topics. Perhaps the reason that so little public personnel research has been done is because such a list of unanswered questions has not been available.
3. It will focus research attention on areas most needing it or where the least has been done. The fact that the *Agenda* exists will encourage an inventory now and then to see how we are doing and how many questions remain to be answered.

IMPORTANT QUESTIONS of personnel policy and practice seldom yield "cut-and-dried" answers. The editors have posed the question below to several persons representing different points of view to give readers guidelines in formulating their own policies.

THE QUESTION

"What are some workable criteria or benchmarks for deciding whether a particular high-level administrative, technical, or professional position should be exempted from the competitive classified service?"

Says ROGER W. JONES . . .

Chairman, U. S. Civil Service Commission

An answer to this question cannot be uniformly applied to federal, state, and local jurisdictions. The comments that I have to make apply to the federal government of the United States. I do not think they fit the situation at all in municipalities, and they apply only to a limited extent in a state government.

Criteria for placing high-level positions in an exempt category in the federal service must be kept flexible. They cannot and should not apply uniformly at all times. Therefore, my first point would be that *any criterion must reflect the changing circumstances of policy needs as applied to and through programs and jobs*. We cannot assume a kind of stability that rarely characterizes real-life government experience.

Second, the purpose for placing a position in an exempt category should be primarily to insure that the party in power can control policy formulation and its application through normal administrative machinery. This is not only part of our governmental tradition but is essential to the rational operation of the system of separation of powers.

Hence, it follows that a principal characteristic of a position which would determine its exemption from the career service would be its *intimate association* with the chief executive, or the head of the department, in seeing to it that the policies advocated by them are put into effect. It means sympathy

with and identification with these policies, participation in their advocacy, and possession of a sense of mission about seeing them accomplished.

At the same time I wish to avoid any implication that the career civil service should be or even can be insulated from policy determination. Top career people are rarely worth their salt unless they contribute significantly to the making of policy. The wise political administrator values having and encourages the kind of competent and uninhibited policy advice that only long-term career men can give.

The important elements of this "executive-policy association" criteria are:

1. The policies involved should have nationwide impact so far as the federal government is concerned.
2. The policies involved should be of a character that actually figure in the differences between political parties.
3. The number of positions involved should be as few as absolutely necessary to guarantee that the head of the department has sufficient eyes, ears, and mouthpieces to insure a translation of his judgments and intentions to the career staff and to insure, as well, a complete understanding on his part of the contribution, judgments, and ideas of the career staff.

Positions exempted because of such association with executive policy may be of either the confidential personal-assistant variety or

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those which take over an assigned portion of a department head's responsibility.

Reverting to my first point, whenever conditions change so that a position does not properly meet the above conditions, it would be appropriate for the position to be returned to the career service. Vice versa, when a new position to achieve policy control appears necessary, it could be established as an exempt job even though it had not been originally contemplated or used by a previous administration.

In any event, such exempt jobs by application of these rigid criteria and by their limited number would offer considerable reassurance that maximum values could be obtained from an experienced and competent top career work force.

Says H. ELIOT KAPLAN . . .

President, New York State Civil Service Commission

The question presupposes that the personnel agency is authorized to make exceptions from competitive examination where either examination or competition is deemed to be impracticable. Some state civil service constitutional provisions—for example, those of New Jersey, New York, Ohio, and California—as well as most civil service laws, provide for competitive examination “wherever practicable.” The first three of the above-mentioned states are notable for the fact that non-competitive or qualifying examinations may be held where competitive test is determined by the civil service commission in its discretion to be “impracticable.” (It will be noted that the criterion is “practicability,” not “practicality.”)

Concededly, examinations lack perfection in testing for certain capabilities, much less essential traits auguring success on the job. Personal qualities, political perspicacity, exercise of discretion and judgment, and other traits lend themselves primarily, if not exclusively, to subjective evaluation or appraisal. Theoretically, of course, the qualifications for virtually every position could be determined by some kind of testing technique.

It is a moot issue whether positions in jurisdictions where all positions (other than those expressly enumerated in the statute) are required to be in the “classified (com-

petitive) service” are or could actually be filled by *competitive* examination. The point is that even in these jurisdictions there inevitably arise situations where competition for one or another reason is found to be “impracticable.” In such case, as a *practical* matter, the non-competitive qualifying test is the only rational means of complying with the letter and spirit of the law.

The determination of whether a particular position or class of positions may be filled by examination, competitive or non-competitive, in most instances is vested in the discretion of the personnel agency. As is well known, the courts are loath to review such exercise of discretion except in clear cases of abuse. Any hard-and-fast rule for determining which position may or may not be filled by examination would be futile; more so would this be the case in waiving competition.

Analysis of the cases where personnel agencies have the authority to except positions from competitive examination would undoubtedly lead to a conclusion that the exercise of discretion has been broad indeed; that in many cases there is neither rhyme nor reason for the exception granted. Even more baffling would be any discernible distinction between exception from examination and exception from competition. Such attempted delineations in most instances are confounding and confusing.

There are, however, some broad criteria (concededly not entirely satisfying) which may reasonably be applied in determining the practicability of examination, competitive or non-competitive. Exemption from competition should, I believe, be invoked only where it is indicated that the incumbent aids in the formulation of policies of administration—that is, “political” policies in a broad sense of the term.

It could be extended also, but perhaps more restrictedly, to positions primarily responsible for execution of such basic policies. Where such an incumbent is in effect the principal “deputy,” or alter ego, of the appointing authority, it is not unreasonable to permit the authority to select his own appointee. He alone should be responsible for the appointment, for he alone would have to be accountable for his policies of administration and for those intimately en-

trusted by him in formulating and executing them. It should apply only to the relatively small number of positions where the relationship of the incumbent to the department head is of such peculiar or unique nature that no means of testing for the traits involved are practicable.

Exception from competition also involves another consideration. Examination may lend itself to determining the qualifications essential for potential success, but the nature of the relationship may be such that competition may be impracticable.

For example, there would doubtless be no difficulty in examining for a court "opinion clerk" who would essentially need to be a good stenographer. We could test for his stenographic ability, but we would be challenged to test the trustworthiness of the nominee not to disclose confidential information or anticipatory decisions of the judges. Under such circumstances the position might properly be placed in the non-competitive class. Another example is where the nature of the position, because of its unusually high responsibility and dearth of candidates meeting the required qualifications, would make competition virtually futile.

In the final analysis, exceptions from competitive examination in any particular case must be a matter of judgment based on experience. No fixed formula will suffice. To a considerable extent, capacity of the technical experts responsible for developing valid tests may be a determining factor. Much depends on the acumen and integrity of those responsible for administering the personnel system.

Says MELVIN J. LAWSON . . .

Chief Personnel Technician, Los Angeles City Civil Service Commission

There are at least three criteria which should be used in deciding whether a position should be exempted. They are: (1) nature of the position, (2) tenure of the position, and (3) relationship of the position to elected officials.

If the nature of the position is such that it is highly specialized with few recognized authorities available to accept the position if it were offered, exemption should definitely be considered. For example, when

the department of water and power wanted an authority to compile a complete history of the origin and development of the department, there was possibly only one historian who met the requirements. This position was exempted from the competitive classified service.

As to the second important criterion—that of tenure—a part-time position of consultant or psychiatrist probably could be filled more economically and efficiently by exemption. Likewise, a highly specialized position of short duration might better be filled by exemption. If a recognized, court-tried real estate appraiser is needed to appraise certain properties in a condemnation suit, he might better be recruited as an exempt employee, rather than through typical civil service procedures. There are few, if any, extremely well qualified professional people who will bother to complete an application for examination, take the examination, and possibly receive an appointment to a part-time or temporary position.

Last but not least—the criterion of relationship of the position to elected officials—we do not mean that the position in question merely reports to an elected official. Instead, we have in mind a position in which the incumbent is the "image" of the elected official to the public. In this instance, it would be difficult for the same person to represent first one mayor and then another mayor, especially if the new mayor had been elected on a platform of reform or vastly different policies.

With reference to the last criterion, the confidential nature of the relationship is not weighted too heavily. It is believed that classified employees are just as honest and loyal as exempt employees. However, if the incumbent is called upon to make political policy, as opposed to administrative policy, it is believed that his position might better be exempt.

In conclusion, I believe I should add a note of caution. Merit systems came into existence because the people wanted the public business to be done by the best persons available. If the best persons can be obtained only by exemption, the positions should be exempted. However, do not hasten to exempt positions because the civil service system appears to be too complicated or too

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time consuming. Instead, accept the challenge and make the civil service system responsive to the needs put upon it. Sharpen your tools, don't discard them.

Says WILLIAM J. VEEDER . . .

City Manager, Charlotte, North Carolina

The question seems to invite a discussion of why "policy level" positions (whatever they are) and positions involving a "confidential" relationship should be exempted from the competitive service. While such a discussion *might* develop some criteria that could be applied, it is doubtful if this would really get to the heart of the point involved.

Basically, isn't it necessary to conclude that, ideally, the techniques that might be used to select the right person for a high-level administrative position in the exempt service would—or at least could—be the same techniques used to select the right person in the competitive service? Assuming in both cases that the appointing authority is seeking the best qualified individual, and further assuming that there are valid examination techniques to measure certain qualities sought (and that in itself may be a wild assumption), then it necessarily follows that both approaches would be similar.

If the above is accurate, then perhaps there are factors other than the actual selection devices that might influence the judgment of, let's say, a manager in forming an opinion on whether a certain "high-level" position should be competitive or exempt. What might some of these other factors be? Several that come to mind are:

If the position is to be in the exempt service, how is the appointment to be made? Will it be filled by direct appointment of the manager, the mayor, the council or, perhaps, an independent board? If the choice boils down to either placing the position in the competitive service or an appointment in which the manager has no voice, then in most cases the competitive appointment would probably be preferable. (This is not to say that appointments over which the manager has no control are always questionable—some of them turn out to be completely satisfactory.)

The type of procedure required on discharges might also influence a manager's judgment on the desirability of exempting a

certain position. If the agency operates with an "open back door" policy as it should, this could easily be a factor in favor of placing the "high-level" position in the competitive service. Just the opposite attitude quite probably would prevail if discharges were subject to review and final determination by a personnel board.

Assuming the manager to be the appointing authority, the latitude available in making selections from eligible lists would be of real importance. If it were permissible to select anyone from the list or use the "rule of three," this would add weight to the desirability of placing the high-level position in the competitive service. Very few managers would favor a competitive class allocation for a high-level administrative position if the personnel law required the appointment of the top person on eligible lists and allowed no latitude of choice.

The caliber of the examining program of the personnel agency serving the unit of government is another factor that can't be overlooked. Let's face it. With notable exceptions, few cities—especially smaller ones—have personnel staff with the training and/or time to develop completely satisfactory examinations for high-level positions.

Can valid examination techniques measure such qualities as initiative, drive, cooperativeness, and ability to get along well with all those concerned? There are those who doubt it. In any case, an answer to the question can be avoided by referring to the earlier assumption that, ideally, similar selection techniques would be used whether the position were competitive or exempt.

Says E. F. RICKETTS . . .

Associate Director, Public Administration Service, Chicago

High-level administrative, technical, and professional posts are (or should be) found in the legislative and judicial as well as the executive branches at national and state levels and in many larger counties and cities. The question posed has greatest relevance to the executive branch of government, but it is not without pertinence in the other two traditional divisions. The inclusion in the competitive classified service of the posts of officers other than judges and legislators is

not without precedent, and some of the evidence about us suggests that the goal associated with good civil service systems (the non-political and effective management of public business) may be more badly needed in the case of the judicial branch than in the executive arm.

The doctrine of the separation of powers probably indicates that the subjection of legislative and judicial branch positions to a personnel system dominated by the executive branch be accomplished by acts of self-abnegation on the part of the former. Once this step has been decided upon, I would suggest that it be characterized by two features—permanence and the inclusion of the great majority of positions subordinate to those of legislators and/or judges. Following action consistent with these two criteria, the inclusion or exclusion of particular high-level posts (not judges, not legislators) should be governed by the considerations that apply to such posts in the executive branch.

What may result when a position is excluded from the competitive classified service? In the individual case, (1) the incumbent does not receive the legal protection of tenure afforded by the civil service system, (2) the position can be filled without resort to the established civil service selection procedures (or to the exemptions from such procedures that the system affords), and (3) consideration of the pay claims of the post in the light of pay treatment for the generality of positions in the service tends to be perhaps less obligatory. Thus, the exclusion affords a measure of manipulability not so readily available for posts included in the competitive classified service. How large a measure, of course, depends upon the jurisdiction.

If any substantial number of positions are excluded, the results may be considerably broader, extending to such possibilities as (1) a veiled, and possibly hypocritical, subsidy of political parties; (2) the introduction of a pattern of multiple personnel systems; and (3) a degradation of the public service in fact, in reputation, or in both. These possibilities should be kept in mind even when the issue is the exclusion or inclusion of a particular post, for the action in each such case is a potential building block in the wall of precedents.

Whether, in the individual case, the attainable measure of manipulability is to be sought must be answered in the light of the circumstances and characteristics of the jurisdiction. These would, I suggest, include the following:

1. The political organization of the jurisdiction. If the jurisdiction is one characterized by a high degree of partisanship which carries over into the posts of key executives, it probably would not be unreasonable to exclude from the classified competitive service one or two subordinates for each such position, so as to give the top official reasonable latitude in fulfilling the political role imposed upon him.
2. The nature of the jurisdiction's service programs and the degree of controversy that attaches to them. Where the functions are such that considerable disagreement exists as to (a) whether they should be performed and (b) if so, at what level, there may be justification for the exclusion of one position which can wield some influence over program administration in response to the policy decisions of officials chosen in elections in which such disagreements have been manifest.
3. The existence and strength of a tradition of political neutrality (responsiveness to policy decisions) among the jurisdiction's employees, and the awareness and acceptance of that tradition by elective and other highest policy officials. Where such a tradition is firmly established and widely accepted, the argument for the exclusion of top administrative posts becomes less weighty.
4. The characteristics and quality of the civil service involved. Here, some of the relevant questions would include: Is the legal protection of tenure meaningful, or has a tradition of security of tenure been established independently of legal provisions? Can the civil service do as good or a better job of finding the kind of employee who is needed? Does the system allow or facilitate the retention of good people and the removal of poor ones?

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Wages and Salaries: A Handbook for Line Managers. By Robert E. Sibson. American Management Association, 1515 Broadway, New York 36, N. Y., 1960. 224 pp. \$5.25.

Reviewed by

ELDER GUNTER

City Manager

City of Des Moines, Iowa

The author presents the problems and needs of wage and salary administration and lists the responsibilities of staff and line managers for administration of the program. His presentation is well organized and practical, and realistic approaches are used. The result is a very informative book that is easy to understand and digest.

Many books written about the various functions of a personnel program cite principles and techniques that are applicable primarily to private industry and are of little value to public agencies. However, Mr. Sibson's book not only outlines basic techniques but enumerates the merits and limitations of methods which are applicable in all situations irrespective of legal limitations, public sentiment, political pressures, and budgetary problems.

The author does not maintain that there is only one technique that must be used to have effective wage and salary administration. For example, he points out that job evaluation is essential in establishing the foundation for the pay program and is a useful tool of management, but he cautions that a job-evaluation study must first be examined by management to determine whether the potential benefits warrant the administrative costs. He also is careful to explain that many techniques and the administration of a program are determined by personal judgment and in many cases depend upon the know-how of the individuals making the studies and setting the policies. The

best illustration of the author's realistic approach is an excerpt from his book:

... principles and practices of wage and salary administration must not only be adapted to each company but, in some cases, must be modified to suit the various organizational units of that company.

In my opinion the author has accomplished his goal of providing information on what the line manager needs to know to fulfill his responsibilities under the company's pay program. The information is not technical and can be clearly understood by the line manager. However, this information is also valuable for people in management positions. Being in a management position myself, I found the book very stimulating and refreshing and I will give serious consideration to some of the techniques as they apply to our organization.

Characteristics of Engineers and Scientists.

By Lee E. Danielson. Bureau of Industrial Relations, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich., 1960. viii, 136 pp. \$4.00.

Reviewed by

EDWARD MCCRENSKY

Director, Civilian Personnel and Services Division,

Office of Naval Research, Washington, D. C.

This report presents the results of a study conducted by the Bureau of Industrial Relations at the University of Michigan of scientists and engineers employed in ten large companies. The subjects were 44 executives, 91 supervisors and 277 non-supervisory professional employees, all engaged in research and engineering activities. They were asked to complete questionnaires and submit to interviews conducted by the survey staff.

The survey explored such areas in employer-employee relations as differences between engineers and scientists as a group

and other groups of employees, qualities of the ideal professional employee, degrees of satisfaction with job activities, employees' reasons for satisfying their job activities, dissatisfying job activities, and greatest problems of non-professionals.

The author provides quantitative data resulting from the questionnaires and he correlates qualitative information based on the interviews as well. In addition, he analyzes and tries to interpret in terms of significance to management, the results of the study. This is of special interest to those concerned with methods of management of scientists and engineers.

The results are analyzed by both category of area investigated and, cumulatively, the total data derived from the study. These employee views might be considered as typical of a scientific and engineering work force in an industrial setting. The individual conclusions that may be drawn from the survey are not earth-shaking in their revelations. They do, however, represent an estimate of the dimensions of the problem of scientists and engineers in an organizational setting based on actual data rather than opinions. In fact, they have importance in reinforcing the frequently cited need for greater management sensitivity to the individual needs, aspirations, and traditions of scientific and engineering employees as a special group within the work force.

A particularly interesting finding is that the problem of giving proper direction to recently graduated scientists and engineers is made difficult by striking deficiencies in their technical and psychological preparation for the jobs assigned to them. In numerous replies, the interviewees stated that the young professionals frequently display serious inadequacies in their fundamental training. There are gaps in their knowledge of content of physical and engineering sciences as well as insufficient general education.

To meet this type of inadequacy, the author suggests greater interchange of information between industries employing scientists and engineers and educational institutions. Such exchange should include not only information of examples of scientific and technical problems faced by such industrial research organizations, but also guidelines on the reality of job expectations that would facilitate the psychological preparation of students for employment.

The author affirms that no substitute exists for the use of sound personnel practices

in trying to meet the particular needs of this group of employees. He performs a very useful service by furnishing a chapter called "Summary and Recommendations." In concise and orderly fashion he addresses his recommendations to four major groups. (1) members of higher management; (2) first line supervisors; (3) engineers and scientists; (4) university faculties.

These suggestions have real merit and are principally derived from the author's critical evaluation of the research survey data. Although evolved from findings of a study of characteristics of scientists and engineers in an industrial environment, they have equal significance for scientists and engineers in the public service.

Leadership Dynamics and the Trade-Union Leader. By Lois MacDonald. New York University Press, Washington Square, New York 3, N. Y., 1959. xi, 156 pp. \$2.50.

Reviewed by

ELI ROCK

*Labor Relations Consultant,
Department of Personnel, City of
Philadelphia*

This is a modest-sized book with modest-sized objectives. It achieves them well. The whole, it would seem, of the enormously growing field of literature on interpersonal relationships (with emphasis on leadership aspects) is surveyed and summarized—with a particular reference on its applicability to problems of trade-union leadership.

Pointing out that only a small minority of the studies up to now have been conducted in a trade-union framework, Miss MacDonald and her associates nevertheless seek to relate existing studies and findings, where possible, to the specific problems of the trade-union field. Necessarily, and recognizedly, the latter can offer only limited possibilities, and the principal thesis of the book is obviously to point to the direction and need for further, extensive research specifically geared to the increasingly important, special problems of trade-union leadership.

To those of us (and we may number many) for whom the terms "sociometry," "leaderless discussion group," and even "group dynamics" must once more evoke the sorrowful consciousness of not having yet fully caught up with the times, the chapter on "Leadership Theory and Exploration"

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is a must as a general orientation, quite apart from the problem of trade unions. The ensuing chapter on "Leadership in Formal Organizations" is at least equally valuable as a summary of the research on leadership problems in larger organizations of our society, as distinguished from the small group research represented by the previous chapter.

This should not, however, obscure the book's central emphasis on the all-important problem of trade-union leadership. The challenges and the problems of the union leader are made strikingly clear. The organization which he leads (whether at a national or local or sub-local level) is unique among American organizations, but nevertheless the leadership mold developed in connection with other organizations may indiscriminately be applied to him.

He is caught between the conflicting pressures to be either the evangelist-organizer type of leader or the negotiating-implementing type, to be either the democratically responsive head of a mass membership organization or the efficient administrator of an increasingly centralized organization, to provide either the leadership image (however unclear) required by his membership or that expected by the employers and the general public on whom the union also has important impact. These, and other sources of confusion, may be present in the case of the lower-level union leader as well as the higher-level one, or they may be different.

Although the book's purpose is to point up these problems, and the need for an extension of existing studies and techniques of study into this specific field, in the course of doing so, it makes some valuable preliminary observations on both the apparent successes and failings of existing union leadership. All that can be said is that a great deal of work remains desperately to be done.

It may perhaps be a cause of regret that the authors did not attempt a more substantive treatment of the specific problems of the field, including those described above and numerous others pointed up by their book. Recognizing that caution is dictated by the doubtful applicability of so many of the existing studies and techniques, the authors also acknowledge that applicability in some directions is possible.

From the stamp of their scholarship in this volume and the extent of their research into existing studies, the authors have demonstrated their clear qualification for the

further, specific research, based on existing studies as well as on new and yet-to-be-devised techniques and studies, which this all-important field literally cries for. Let us hope they will be able to launch such an effort—obstacles notwithstanding.

Fringe Benefits. By Francis M. Wistert. Reinhold Publishing Corp., 430 Park Ave., New York 22, N. Y., 1959. xi, 155 pp. \$3.75.

Reviewed by

ROBERT D. KRAUSE

*Supervisor, Classification Division,
Milwaukee City Service Commission*

Within limits, this book meets a clear and present need for a comprehensive manual on fringe-benefit practices. Mr. Wistert has an easy, concise style that makes his book eminently readable. Within the bounds of 155 pages, however, he is unable to say everything that should be said.

He does cover most of the major fringe benefits. But a wide variety of minor benefits and even a few major benefits—such as call-in pay, terminal leave and severance pay—are mentioned either briefly or not at all.

Perhaps the best chapters are those on pensions and group insurance. These are highly complex subjects which the author handles with skill and clarity. He demonstrates a particular interest and competence in his treatment of these two subjects.

Public personnel practitioners should also enjoy his discussion of the Guaranteed Annual Wage and Supplemental Unemployment Benefits. This is a recent and fascinating development which has not yet, of course, had a direct impact on public employment.

Business executives as a group have some highly significant benefits that are not generally available to either blue-collar or white-collar employees. These include stock options, expense accounts, and executive bonuses. Unfortunately, the author was unable to find space for this interesting and controversial topic.

Another subject that might have received more thorough coverage is the computation of fringe-benefit costs. Despite widespread interest and discussion, most private and public employers have not yet developed accounting records that will provide reliable cost data. There is, in fact, not even general agreement on which benefits to include in

the computations. The author has overlooked an opportunity to contribute some serious thinking toward the solution of these problems.

Because of space limitations, the book takes an approach that is more descriptive than analytic. In a few of his short forays into the realm of analysis, the author tussles briefly with logic and comes out second best. He comments, for example, that the Guaranteed Annual Wage may stabilize employment, and then argues: "By its very nature a mobile work force creates job vacancies. With the number of job vacancies reduced, the unemployed may find it harder to be re-employed." This logic may suggest that our periods of greatest job instability—such as the 1930's—provide the greatest opportunities for the unemployed to be re-employed.

The book also contains an occasional touch of polemic, which does not do justice to the generally restrained discussion. For example: "Pressure for fringe benefits is not from the workers . . . but from the international union officers who paternalistically believe they know what is best for the worker in socio-economic matters."

Despite a few soft spots, this is a valuable work. As the author notes, "It is not unusual in industry today for so-called 'fringe benefits' to cost from 50 to 70 cents or more an hour per employee. Indeed they often amount to 25% of the average employee's straight-time hourly rate." In view of their growing significance, it is high time for a comprehensive treatment of fringe benefits.

This book is the first of its kind. It therefore serves a valuable purpose as a reference tool. The related references at the end of each chapter also constitute a useful bibliography for further reading on selected subjects.

Labor Turnover: Calculation and Cost. By Frederick J. Gaudet. AMA Research Study No. 39. American Management Association, 1515 Broadway, New York 36, N. Y., 1960. 111 pp. \$5.25/AMA members \$3.50.

Reviewed by

GENE HUNTLEY

*Director, Personnel and Public Relations,
Oregon State Highway Department*

Like the story of the eight-year-old girl who said in a note to an aunt thanking her

for a birthday-present book about birds: "It is just lovely, but it really tells me more than I care to know about birds"—Dr. Gaudet's excellent book undoubtedly tells the average personnel man more in most cases than he cares to know about labor turnover!

This is far from being a handbook giving a particular practical approach to coping with excess turnover. Far is it, even, from being a well documented and complete study giving several pragmatic sides to this problem and offering solutions. Rather, it is a most inquisitive, detailed, complex and scholarly treatise on the subject—so open-minded, objective, and theoretical, in fact, that it never quite reaches any conclusions. This does, however, create a kind of reader excitement of the type found in detective mysteries: as one ponders and studies chapter after chapter, he keeps hoping and expecting to learn rather dramatically "Who done it." But, alas, on the last page the author bluntly states:

Finally, one must agree with Cook that despite the claims that sometimes have been made, no one has yet been able to establish any one cause or combination of causes that will satisfactorily explain labor turnover, or to point to any remedy or remedies that can be depended upon to give the desired results, even in a single firm, let alone over industry generally. . . . The great hope for the future lies in continuing research on a higher level of scientific sophistication than before.

Perhaps—in deference to the unsophisticated—this pronouncement should have been on the first page.

Intricate in every facet of investigation, objective beyond question, this document has all the aspects of an outstanding doctor's dissertation. It should be a delight to any thinking economist—particularly the chapter on "Calculating the Cost of Labor Turnover." To the practicing manager, it will be something less. It may not leave him cold, but it will indeed leave him standing in awe. If ever he had any question about labor turnover being an involved and major problem, this will be dispelled before he is half through Gaudet's book.

Accepting that it is scholarly and thesis-like, then within this acceptance there is much to enjoy and certainly much to learn. Gaudet's style is refreshing and casual, considering the heavy fabric he is weaving. For woof he uses economic labor theory, and the warp is a mixture of psychology and

sometimes assumed concepts of management. He emerges from a particularly profound section of his book, for example (made additionally impressive by charts showing the relation of economic activity and turnover), to declare:

It is apparent that both the economists and the psychologists are correct: Any investigator of turnover must take into account both external and internal factors. The difficulty is that no one knows their relative influence. . . .

When the reader begins to believe that after all there may be a systematic way to lower turnover, he is told that a drop in turnover actually may not be due at all to the good and thoughtful work of a personnel man, comptroller, or other staff member in an organization, but may in fact be the result of a downward swing in the business cycle!

Sometimes the management practitioner begins to feel like a frustrated Captain Ahab in pursuit of an elusive Moby Dick. "The investigator who inquires into the methods that the more successful companies have used to reduce turnover, in the hope of finding some sort of blueprint for other firms to follow, is doomed to disappointment," says the author in a kind of dismal denouement.

But in spite of this solemn and strange fabric, there are occasional dainty, bright patterns: the little human traits and writing habits that endear a writer to us. Gaudet frequently asks questions that he doesn't answer as if, in a manner, he were talking to himself. For example, "Whether labor turnover is desirable or undesirable is really a question of 'desirable or undesirable to whom?'" Later in the book after a long discussion of labor turnover cost in terms of

English pounds, he observes: "The question of which is the better technique returns the investigator of labor turnover costs to the old reply, 'Better for what?'"

Rather endearing also is his habit, particularly when the going gets rough, to put in the text—sort of like buoys in a channel—sparkling little boxed wisdoms that have no immediate connection with what he is saying, such as: "Labor turnover is a continuous and fruitless interchange of workers between firms," or "What can be measured can be controlled."

In the first chapter the author covers most every conceivable means of measuring turnover. The chapter on calculating the cost of turnover is weighty, and if the reader gets through this, he has it made. The author's facts are always interesting. For example, he estimates on a conservative basis, assuming that an average turnover cost is \$500 per worker, that the annual labor turnover cost for the nation's working force is close to \$11 billion.

The chapter entitled "Beyond the Statistics" develops the relationship, or lack of it, between turnover and absenteeism, accidents, the size of the organization, and the general factors of age, sex, marital status, and skill level. In the final chapter he discusses a number of the more important methods which have been used in an effort to reduce turnover.

If the management man can take the quiet time to study this book, it is very worthwhile. Good things do not come easy. And when the manager finishes, he can with confidence tell his colleagues and neighbors that he knows, or has access to finding out, all there is to know about labor turnover. And after all, this may well be one of those little but durable satisfactions of life.

"If You Work for a Man . . ."

If you work for a man, in Heaven's name, work for him. If he pays you wages which supply you bread and butter, work for him; speak well of him; stand by him and stand by the institution he represents. If you put to a pinch, an ounce of loyalty is worth a pound of cleverness. If you must vilify, condemn and eternally disparage—resign your position, and when you are outside, damn to your heart's content, but as long as you are part of the institution do not condemn it. If you do that, you are loosening the tendrils that are holding you to the institution, and at the first high wind that comes along, you will be uprooted and blown away, and probably will never know the reason why.—Elbert Hubbard. From *Personnel Pointers*, February, 1960.

PERSONNEL BIBLIOGRAPHY

This feature is possible through the cooperation of the U.S. Civil Service Commission. It was prepared by the staff of the Commission's Library under the direction of Mrs. Elaine Woodruff, Librarian. Selections are made on the basis of (1) general availability, (2) pertinence to the public service generally, and (3) recency of material.

Evaluating the Effectiveness of a Personnel Program

American Management Association.

Justifying the personnel program: costs—budgets—evaluation. New York, 1954. 51 pp. (Personnel series no. 160).

Contents: How the personnel program pays off, by Walter H. Powell; Evaluating and reporting personnel functions, by Seward H. French, Jr.; Controlling and measuring personnel costs, by E. W. Dwyer; How to present the personnel budget, by Howard M. Dirks.

Aronson, Albert H.

Evaluation of personnel operations. *Personnel administration*, vol. 21, no. 3, May-June 1958, pp. 28-34.

Reiterates that evaluation of personnel operations is a means of attaining efficiency rather than an end in itself. Considers questions that must be answered before an evaluation can be made, when and how it should be conducted and by whom.

Blai, Boris, Jr.

How effective is your personnel program? *Personnel journal*, vol. 30, no. 3, July-August 1951, pp. 98-101.

Six records which will serve as yardsticks for measuring the effectiveness of a personnel program, and how to use them to draw a simple personnel profile chart.

Brooke, Joel I.

Sampling the opinion of 73,000 managers. *Personnel administration*, vol. 18, no. 6, November 1955, pp. 21-26.

Describes in detail the opinion survey technique used to determine what 73,000 managers thought about personnel practices and policies in the U. S. Department of Defense.

Buchele, Robert B.

Company character and the effectiveness of personnel management. *Personnel*, vol. 31, no. 4, January 1955, pp. 289-302.

Points out that the differences in character between companies affect the results achieved by personnel management programs, and concludes that in order to get the best results from a personnel program, the character of the company must be determined. Presents a framework for understanding how this may be done.

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Bureau of National Affairs.

Evaluating a P-IR program. Washington, D. C., 1954. 21 pp.

Greatest obstacle to effective evaluation of the personnel-industrial relations program is intangible nature of many factors of the program, but value of such appraisal is well worth taking time to solve the problems involved. Various companies conduct evaluation reviews of relationships that effectively measure morale as well as various other aspects of personnel management.

Clarke, J. R.

Dollars and sense in personnel administration. *Personnel journal*, vol. 31, no. 7, December 1952, pp. 242-246.

Shows how the personnel program can pay its way in certain areas such as: unemployment compensation, workmen's compensation, suggestion systems, turnover and absenteeism, productivity, union contracts, overtime, and wage administration.

Eberle, John P.

Dollars and sense in personnel programs. *Personnel administration*, vol. 16, no. 1, January 1953, pp. 25-29, 24.

Describes performance and cost report system of the U. S. Bureau of the Census and how it operates to evaluate personnel activities.

Eittington, Julius E.

Problems in evaluating field personnel programs. *Personnel administration*, vol. 11, no. 6, July 1949, pp. 25-29.

Organizing and operating a formal field survey of personnel operations. Includes sections on what to look for, evaluating the classification program, the selection and utilization program, and securing compliance.

Feldman, Milton J., and James E. Bates, Jr.

Evaluating personnel management activities. *Public personnel review*, vol. 20, no. 3, July 1959, pp. 218-223.

Description of the Guide to the Evaluation of Civilian Personnel Administration in the Air Force, how it was developed and how it is used to give an effective appraisal of the personnel function.

Goode, C. E.

Controlling personnel office costs. *Personnel*, vol. 25, no. 5, March 1949, pp. 320-331.

Concludes that simple staffing guides applicable to all organizations are not feasible, but that such standards can be established within one organization, particularly a large, dispersed one. Describes methods and results of staffing survey conducted by the Veterans Administration.

Lascola, I. R., and R. P. Everett.

Personnel surveys help line management. *Public personnel review*, vol. 19, no. 2, April 1958, pp. 104-108.

The California State Personnel Board is now inventorying personnel management within state agencies in addition to its regular program of surveying the classification plans of these agencies. Describes the formulation of this personnel management survey, its actual operation and the success with which the program has met.

Luck, Thomas J.

Personnel audit and appraisal. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1955. 317 pp.

Examines the methods of gathering accurate information about the performance of the personnel function in a form that is easily interpreted for decision making. Discusses five methods of auditing personnel functions: statistical approach, check list questionnaire, sociometric studies, attitude studies and morale surveys, and employee interviewing. Also describes a procedure for obtaining an inventory of employee performance and potential.

Odiorne, George S.

Of profits and personnel. *Personnel*, vol. 35, no. 1, July-August 1958, pp. 36-43.

Declares that the primary contribution of personnel functions is their part in increasing the stability and growth of a company. Examines specifically the various ways in which personnel departments make this contribution.

Payne, Bruce.

Evaluating the personnel department. *Personnel journal*, vol. 29, no. 9, February 1951, pp. 343-345.

Lists measurable and non-measurable factors for rating the performance of personnel departments.

Pfiffner, John M., and Frank V. K. Mason.

Personnel management at the grass roots. *Personnel administration*, vol. 20, no. 3, May-June 1957, pp. 25-33.

Analyzes 1,371 critical incidents which actually took place in local social security offices in an effort to test management action at the working level. One conclusion is that "The main ingredient of personnel management at the grass-roots level is face-to-face relationships between supervisors and employees."

Powell, Norman J.

Personnel administration in government. Englewood Cliffs, N. J., Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956.

Appraisal of the personnel program, pp. 201-206.

Rifkind, B. D., and others.

Applying work measurement to personnel administration. *Public administration review*, vol. 17, no. 1, Winter 1957, pp. 14-19.

Describes origin and establishment of the U. S. Air Force staffing program for personnel administration, and explains how work measurement was used to effect management improvement in personnel office operations.

Saltonstall, Robert.

Evaluating personnel administration. *Harvard business review*, vol. 30, no. 6, November-December 1952, pp. 93-104.

Explores some of the approaches which management has adopted for evaluating the effectiveness of personnel administration. Weighs approaches used by 60 companies and points out strength and weakness of various systems.

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Saltonstall, Robert.

Who's who in personnel administration. Harvard business review, vol. 33, no. 4, July-August 1955, pp. 75-83.

Points out methods by which difference between line and staff responsibility in major functional areas of personnel administration can be specifically clarified. Suggests joint committee representing top management, personnel department, and line supervision could make a major contribution by clarifying issues involved and setting a pattern for future staff-line relationships.

Shahin, Gordon T.

Quantity standards and controls applicable to personnel work too. Personnel journal, vol. 37, no. 7, December 1958, pp. 243-246.

Examines personnel administration functions and suggests the establishment of quantitative goals to enable self-evaluation and planning.

Taylor, James H.

Personnel administration: evaluation and executive control. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959. 326 pp.

Author believes the personnel function should and can justify its existence. He discourses on personnel activities that lend themselves to measurement. Sections cover aspects of management succession, compensation, plans and policies, and manager-employee and company-union relationships.

U. S. Civil Service Commission.

An approach to work measurement of personnel activities. Washington, 1956. 23 pp.

Presents a workable system for applying work measurement to personnel programs and operations.

U. S. Civil Service Commission.

Evaluating your personnel management. Washington, U. S. Govt. Print. Off., 1954. 88 pp. (Personnel management series no. 6)

Presents principles and techniques by which an agency can evaluate its personnel program. Poses questions as to agency activity in various segments of personnel program and suggests methods and sources for securing information that will answer these questions.

U. S. Department of the Air Force.

A guide to the evaluation of civilian personnel management activities in the Air Force. Washington, U. S. Govt. Print. Off., 1957. 133 pp. (Air Force manual 40-5)

Spells out in detail procedures for making a systematic appraisal of civilian personnel management activities in the Air Force. Includes check lists designed to help in the review of regulatory, procedural, and record-keeping aspects of the civilian personnel program.

Willey, Robert H.

Quality control of personnel management. Personnel administration, vol. 18, no. 6, November 1955, pp. 27-32.

Briefly examines the methods by which the caliber of civilian personnel management is measured in the U. S. Department of the Army. Integrated evaluation system includes top management control through reports from each installation, quality control by specific on-the-spot survey into supervisory personnel practices, station self-analysis, and outside reviews which bring objectivity into the evaluation system.

Yoder, Dale, and others.

Auditing your manpower management. Minneapolis, University of Minnesota, Industrial Relations Center, 1954. 37 pp. (Bulletin no. 13)

Explains how the Triple Audit can help to improve current human relations in employment and what it can mean to those who have major responsibilities in managing manpower.

Yoder, Dale, and others.

Handbook of personnel management and labor relations. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1958. 1 v.

Section 24, Employment Relations Audits outlines in detail how to conduct a critical review and evaluation of the work of the employee relations staff.

Yoder, Dale, and Roberta J. Nelson.

Industrial relations budgets: yardsticks for 1959. Personnel, vol. 36, no. 4, July-August 1959, pp. 16-27.

"Since 1956 . . . both interest and practice in what has been described as 'functional' or activity budgeting appear to have grown rapidly."

Presents median figures on eight major functions of employee relations activities.

Let In Some Fresh Air . . .

When the creative person is stifled, there's a tendency for all the staff to play safe, taking no chances on trying anything new, bold or original, lest a "mistake" go down in the little black book.

Soon the spark is lost, and the big idea in the office is merely to hold onto the job—not to get the work done or develop the value of the organization, but just comply with regulations so as not to go off the payroll.

When one with the ability to get action and accomplishment comes into such an atmosphere, he immediately feels repelled, and usually doesn't stay long.—Herb Walker in *IAPES News*, November, 1959.

personnel literature

abstracts of current articles

Hospitals and Collective Bargaining. James L. Centner. *Personnel Journal*. November, 1959.

Hospital administrators should take a close look at their personnel management function as an aftermath of the strike of New York City hospital employees. It is probable that no provision is made for the industrial relations staff function. Many hospitals take their personnel programs lightly and fail to have a complete employee relations program.

Hospitals lag behind industry in accepting and understanding collective bargaining, and most hospital administrators find themselves in the same situation businessmen were twenty years ago when employees joined unions and demanded recognition. Collective bargaining is feared because administrators know little about it and how to cope with it. Some observers claim the New York strike could have ended quickly had the hospitals agreed to recognize the right of employees to bargain collectively. It was charged that the hospitals ignored social justice in refusing to recognize their union.

Hospital management can avoid costly mistakes in considering collective bargaining by using the wealth of information available on the process of collective bargaining. Not only can they learn how to participate in it but also how to avoid it. Generally, employees turn to unions when management fails to listen to their problems. Research shows that poorly handled grievances, not wage issues, motivate employees to divert allegiance to unions. The keystones of sound employee relations are prompt and fair adjustment of grievances, proper compensation, letting employees know what is going on, and supervisors who do not give just lip-service to principles of leadership.

It is not realistic to expect employees to accept sub-standard wages and working conditions simply because they work in

non-profit hospitals and are expected to be dedicated to the care of the sick. Sitting back and suppressing issues or stifling discussion will not point the way to a solution of employee problems. The moral, legal, and ethical issues in a consideration of possible collective bargaining can be dealt with only by an enlightened administrator.—FRANK B. KRUPIARZ.

Personnel Management and an Aging Work Force. Kenneth D. Brown. *Personnel Administration*. January-February, 1960.

Chronological age is no index to the capabilities of an individual for gainful employment. Advances in medicine are making it possible to delay the onset of some of the undesirable aging processes. In our senior citizens we have a reservoir of knowledge, experience, and skill which is of immeasurable value to our society. It is the job of personnel management to make available to society this knowledge, experience and skill.

To achieve this, individual abilities must be considered in relation to the individual requirements of a specific job. Such a method is of particular value in the placement of older workers because it is based upon individual usefulness and considers specific abilities. In addition, it is essential also to consider the emotional and social aspects of placement.

Environmental factors must be adjusted to compensate for the loss of emotional flexibility and feeling of insecurity that accompanies old age. At the same time, programs designed to train employees for retirement should be started well in advance of the time for retirement. Retirement incomes should be adjusted so that the standard of living is more than mere subsistence. There are only two areas in which to find the solution to the common problem of reduced income—either make more money available to the retired or provide opportunities for gainful employment.

Ideally, employment policy should be sufficiently flexible to allow continued employment for those individuals wishing and able to work. Such a policy could well compensate for the increasing cost of our aging population.—GRACE M. PIERSON.

Tell Your People First. R. Thurman Taylor. *Personnel Journal*. February, 1960.

Communications, someone said, is not a chapter in the book of management—it is the whole book. Communications has a supreme value in effecting a company's publics: employees, stockholders, customers, the community, trade media, perhaps even competitors. The proverbial pebble is dropped into a pool and, like industry's audiences, concentric circles widen ever outward.

Industry sessions and formal surveys all over the country indicate a single overwhelming reply: "Employees are the most important segment of our public." An employee who is progressing in his job, feels secure and recognized, will reflect this in his association with friends and his family, and in turn—indirectly in many cases—to their acquaintances. Contrariwise, negativism, uncertainty, and lack of company knowledge is a contagion transmitted to the employee's wife and children, to his fellow workers, to his garage mechanic, the newspaper boy—to every person with whom he comes in contact. And the word spreads.

Improperly informed employees are poor public-relations representatives of any company, large or small. In addition, the production and morale of the employee himself may be harmfully influenced. On the other hand, informed, company-integrated employees are proud of their work, their company, and their identity with it. They are quick to speak well of it.

Factors important in company communications are *timeliness*, *living right* (meaning recognizing its employees, developing their talents, giving meaningful personal recognition, realizing their industrial and personal needs), and *telling people about it*. In telling people about it there are many communication vehicles available, and two of these are particularly important and worthy of examination.

House organs, once little more than gossip sheets, have grown in professional dimension to become important communications mediums. Over 10,000 first-rate publications are published in this country by com-

munications-minded industries, and in many cases they have become an authentic voice of management. Managers would do well to re-examine their house organs with an eye toward improving this most valuable tool which reaches both their own employees and many community groups. For persuasive communications, management would have difficulty finding a better vehicle.

Corporate citizenship through an active community life on the part of the company and its people adds to the firm's stature, not only as an economic asset but as an identity. Employees who are active in civic clubs and who achieve offices reflect favorably on their company and at the same time gain experience in committee work, creativeness, decision-making and other ingredients valuable in management development.

In house organs wise management has discovered that it pays not to avoid controversial news. Companies that try to sugarcoat the facts, feeding employees sweet-sounding phrases about teamwork and family spirit, are only fooling themselves. The effective house organ tells the company story—and all of it—and does so with honesty and credibility. Above all, it interprets and answers the "why" and "how."

A company will not become an identity and a personality if it doesn't do everything within its talents and resources to reach all its publics. Live right and tell people about it . . . but wherever possible, tell your employees about it first.—GENE HUNTLEY.

The Good Manager: Do We Know What We're Looking For? Louis A. Allen. *Personnel*. January-February, 1960.

Despite the vast sums that have been spent on management development since the end of World War II, despite the intensive research aimed at identifying the traits and characteristics of the effective manager, despite all the personality tests, it is still a rare company today that is not bemoaning the dearth of managerial skill.

Do we indeed know what we are looking for? Is it not just possible that industry might have achieved more tangible results if, instead of focusing its efforts on trying to find or develop men to fit some preconceived idea of what a manager should be, it had concentrated rather on what he actually does? Good managers are many kinds of men, all doing a particular kind of work

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—the work that a manager does in managing.

What is this work that only the manager himself can do? Organization analysis shows that it comprises four distinct functions: leading, planning, organizing, and controlling. To fulfill his organizational role, every manager at every level must carry out these activities. When he is not doing these things, he is not managing. Furthermore, he must do them in such a way that their performance constitutes a systematic whole. Leading, as a management function, is the work a manager does to cause others to take action. He leads by performing the following identifiable, measurable activities: (1) initiating, (2) decision-making, (3) communicating, (4) motivating, (5) selecting people, and (6) developing people.

Planning is the work a manager performs to predetermine future action. It comprises the following: (1) forecasting, (2) setting objectives, (3) programing, (4) scheduling, (5) setting procedures, and (6) budgeting.

Organizing is the work a manager does to develop a sound structure, delegate responsibility and authority, and establish working relationships that will facilitate the attainment of his objectives. He must develop controls to insure that the work carried on under his supervision does not require his personal attention except in special cases. Management controls are achieved through (1) standards of performance, (2) performance measurement, (3) evaluation, and (4) corrective action.

Leading, planning, organizing, and controlling—these, then, are the activities that comprise the manager's job and the only activities on which a man's performance as a manager can be judged. In the interests of over-all effective functioning, management selection and training must focus, therefore, on the total work a manager must do to fulfill his organizational role. Industry must learn to view the managerial job as a systematic whole. Only then can it hope to produce managers who can be called professionals in any meaningful sense of the word.—FRED E. HENNE.

What a President Expects of His Personnel Office. O. Roy Chalk. *Personnel Journal*. December, 1959.

The formality of the personnel program of an organization will vary as to its complexity, and the extent of functions of the personnel department will be determined

fundamentally by the number and type of workers.

A basic and universal function of the personnel office is to procure an adequate and efficient work force. The use of the most effective testing and selective methods to assure the best candidate for each vacancy is expected. A salary for each job with range appropriate for the new and experienced workers is necessary. Wages paid for comparable work in the recruitment area must be considered in establishing a wage plan for an organization.

Job evaluation is important only if it recognizes progress and improvement expected from employees in a progressive organization. Evaluations cannot be static and favor the versatility and flexibility required of workers.

The personnel office is expected to establish and coordinate systems of promotions and transfers, supervisory developments, and utilization of surplus skills and misplaced workers. Personnel people should discover problem employees and effect improvement before the situation has progressed to the "point of no return." This also applies to grievances.

Guidance should be furnished department heads to establish relationships with workers eliminating frictions, unhappiness, and poor performance. Aggressive action is expected in building employee morale through employee counseling and other positive promotional efforts.

Personnel must communicate the thoughts and feelings of management and express, in return, what workers are thinking, saying, and doing. It is expected to take the lead in presenting to the public the image of management—an aggressive and progressive spirit and a desire to improve performance. It should understand people and human relations better than others in the organization.

Plans to protect and preserve the physical well-being of employees and their families before and after retirement is required of the personnel staff.—LEROY J. BRENNEMAN.

Selection Tests: How to Develop Your Own Scoring Key. Clyde Harden. *Personnel*. January-February, 1960.

In the field of personnel management, opinion is sharply divided over the value of personality tests in selecting employees. Despite the fact that in some organizations management has grown wary, there is ample

evidence that tests, when properly used, can genuinely aid management in arriving at sound selection decisions. The important word here is "properly" since, where tests prove misleading, the user rather than the test is to blame.

The scoring key which comes with a test is based on national averages which may or may not be appropriate to the particular company's "population." To have any predictive value, the test must first be validated on the company's own employees and a scoring key developed that reflects the standard of acceptability for whatever employee group the test is intended to screen. This may be done by:

1. Studying the characteristics of the job and identifying the most important traits and skills required
2. Selecting a battery of tests that best measure the traits identified through this study and administering these tests to the present employee group
3. Collecting accurate data on the performance of present employees
4. Grouping these performance ratings into three categories—high, average, and low
5. Comparing the test scores with the performance ratings to see whether the high group has a different profile from the low group
6. Recording and analyzing all test items that show a relationship to performance
7. Determining which items were answered differently by the high and low group.

You are now in sight of your goal—a list of items correlating with high performance. It is highly advisable to repeat Steps 3 through 7, if possible, on a similar group of employees. This will give you a "cross validation" to see whether you get the same results in a similar situation. You are then in a position to:

1. Construct a key scoring only the "good" items in both studies
2. Score all answer sheets with the new key and plot the relationships between the new scores and performance ratings
3. Establish a practical cut-off score
4. Evaluate the effectiveness of the new key as a selection tool.

This final step will assist you in determining the effectiveness of your selection instru-

ment, and while the procedure outlined may not satisfy the most rigid research standards, it has worked well for the Quaker Oats Company. If other companies will establish a similar program, tests would have a higher reputation than they have at the present time.—DOROTHY C. PIEZ.

Office Automation—A Challenge to Personnel Relations. Raymond Dreyfack. *Punched Card Data Processing*. November-December, 1959.

From time immemorial uninformed people have feared and resented the introduction of new methods and new machines. Yet these things are synonymous with progress, and without progress we move backwards.

With the advent of automation in industry, a new revolution has been launched. The giant computer and its embodying concepts must inevitably change our way of life in a manner that even the most imaginative of us cannot accurately visualize. We are embarked upon a new era of productive ease, efficiency and—incongruously enough—simplicity. To thousands of workers, however, automation symbolizes the same monster that the loom, steam engine, and automobile represented in days past.

Mr. Dreyfack discusses the workers' fear, how it affects industry, and how management can counteract this fear. With regard to jobs, the major problem is not the release of employees, but their displacement. This takes on a more serious aspect when it involves middle-aged or elderly people who are generally less easily adjusted to change. In most companies job openings for these individuals—many of them possessing records of long and faithful service—are not as plentiful or flexible as junior opportunities. Here, special efforts should be made not to reduce the status of such people as a result of the transition. This can often be accomplished by anticipating and considering reassignments of this type early in the game and striving to adjust as many of them as possible even before the transition itself goes into effect.

Potential benefits to be derived from automation are numerous: reduction of tedium and monotony; work simplification as a result of routine details handled automatically; the birth of a whole new field of computer training and skills, and—inevitably, in the long run—a shorter work week which will provide more time for relaxation and travel, more time for music and art and study—the

good things of life, more time to buy more products and so nourish and bolster the economy. Automation and computers can help to make these things possible.

But, as always, people will be needed to set the wheels into motion and keep them turning. No matter how far we advance in the fields of science and progress, people will always be needed. For this reason they must not be ignored or overlooked. They're entitled to know the score. It is to management's advantage—both morally and financially—to see that they do.—RUTH L. OLSON.

Some Approaches to Education for the Public Service. Paul P. Van Riper. *Personnel Administration*. January-February, 1960.

Education for public service should be concerned with its broad general direction, not with details of method. Five approaches illustrate the direction it should take.

First, skepticism is needed in public administration training to stimulate rational inquiry. The question of how we shall educate for the public service suggests that organization of such education must leave room for individuals to do some thinking of their own. History recalls successful administrators from strange places with strange attributes who used every opportunity available to them to develop their executive talents. Public administration education should not be so rigid as to stifle individual choice.

From the military comes the second approach—in a crisis, some action is better than none. The crisis is that there is no teachable theory of organization for large-scale purposes. The traditional concepts of large-scale organization—*decentralization*, *bureaucracy*, and the *line and staff* formula—fail to fit organizations of over one million persons. Training for public administration is based on some sort of conception of what kind of organization you are trying to train a man for. Research is needed to work out a new concept of organization, and even though we might be afraid of what such research may turn up, some start must be made toward this objective.

Third, public administration training is dull and lifeless and must be revitalized! It is a basic social process, not a conglomerate of disparate functions. Furthermore, great improvements in teaching methods, upgrading of curriculum, better selection of students, and establishment of more interdisciplinary centers such as at Cornell and

Pittsburgh are essential if public administration is to keep pace with other professions.

Fourth, if public service education needs to be revitalized, so does our view of public administration itself. It must be conceived of at its highest level and all training must be done with the highest in mind. The management of public affairs involves the highest levels of ideas, organization, and action. All three are required for a basic societal structure in which satisfaction can be attained. The efforts of both the university and the public service are essential for a complete and effective job of education for public administration if our citizenry is to know what all this means and requires. It is not important that this goal be fully realized, but that education head in this direction.

Fifth, this global concept of training for executive action is not impossible and can be realized if we work toward it.—FRANK B. KRUPIARZ.

Promoting the Federal Public Service in Higher Education. William W. Boyer and Earl P. Shoub. *Personnel Administration*. November-December, 1959.

Our national interest is concerned with the success of recently established government career programs. This success, in turn, depends upon how well the public service advances its recruitment needs and career opportunities among faculty and students of higher education. Government and higher education share the obligation to combat ridicule of scholarship and public service, to develop favorable attitudes toward career opportunities in the public service, and to encourage government careers for their intellectual satisfactions rather than solely for their material rewards.

Optimism for achieving these goals is due to such recent developments as increased prestige and morale within the public service itself; less entrance-level government "red tape"; better academic programs preparatory for public service; a liberalized federal in-service training program; a significant breakthrough in national policy toward higher education; and joint government-education campus career promotion. In addition, the prestige and morale of the federal service has been greatly enhanced since the detrimental publicity of excessive security-loyalty investigations gave way to positive, favorable reporting of the government employee attitude survey type.

"Another reason for optimism is directly attributable to the near revolution in federal recruitment standards and procedures wrought by the inauguration of the Federal Service Entrance Examination program in 1955." Previously, college students, educators, and federal authorities had valid criticisms of both the means and the results of the federal service examining program. "Today, however, these criticisms have been largely overcome" by the Federal Service Entrance Examination program which has itself "influenced other federal recruitment programs to modernize and broaden their appeal to students and faculty." This has brought about closer relations between government agencies and academic institutions and has resulted in the potential-for-leadership development being substituted for narrow specialization.

Further cause for optimism "is the accelerated development of government-oriented graduate and professional school programs," such as the unique "Trimester" program at the University of Pittsburgh Graduate School of Public and International Affairs. Also "of major significance for the federal service is that undergraduate liberal arts education is becoming increasingly international and intercultural in dimension." Two 1958 federal legislative enactments—the Government Employees Training Act and the National Defense Education Act—have forged "a new and lasting bond" between the public service and higher education.

Direct campus promotion—for which new federal or school programs are no substitute—is urged to induce favorable attitudes toward career opportunities in government. Joint efforts of government agencies, interested professional organizations, and representatives of higher education have proved highly successful in developing the interest of college persons and in facilitating their entry into federal service. Tomorrow's leaders—"our nation's educated and intellectuals—must become convinced that govern-

ment service offers challenging and satisfying careers. Only then will popular attitudes toward government reflect pride and respect."—HELEN THOMPSON.

Abstracters for 1960

The following members of the Public Personnel Association have accepted the editor's invitation to serve as abstracters of articles for the "Personnel Literature" section of *Public Personnel Review* during 1960:

Roger E. Bélanger, Personnel Officer, The St. Lawrence Seaway Authority, Montreal, Canada.

Leroy J. Brenneman, Personnel Director, Phoenix, Arizona, Civil Service Board.

James R. Gray, Personnel Administrator, Rhode Island State Division of Personnel.

Fred Henne, Personnel Officer, Arkansas State Department of Welfare.

Gene Huntley, Director, Division of Personnel and Public Relations, Oregon State Highway Department.

Frank B. Krupiarz, Chief, Personnel Section, Michigan State Department of Health.

Robert V. Metcalfe, Ontario Department of Transport, Toronto, Canada.

Ruth L. Olson, Bureau Personnel Officer, Bureau of Aeronautics, Department of the Navy.

Grace M. Pierson, Associate Personnel Examiner, California State Personnel Board.

Dorothy C. Piez, Recruitment Officer, Denver, Colorado, Career Service Authority.

Norman Sharpless, Assistant City Personnel Director, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, City Service Commission.

Helen Thompson, Assistant Personnel Director, City of Atlanta, Georgia.

Administrative Staff Colleges . . .

I have been looking rather longingly at the experience of other governments with staff colleges. Many of you are familiar with the British experience. The Administrative Staff College at Henley-on-Thames is supported by private funds and fees charged participants. About 60 men drawn from business and government spend 3 months in intensive study of management methods. In words used by Sir Noel Hall in describing the school tie of green wool with a superimposed gold acorn: "They come in green and go out nuts."

In a similar undertaking, the French government operates a National School of Administration which conducts a 3-year work and study program. Although the study is to prepare the student for government, some of the work assignments are in business or industry. The Brazilian School of Public Administration offers a degree course of 4 years, an advanced course for senior officers of 2 years, and a special 4½-month course for senior officers.

These schools are demonstrating that the methods of management can be identified, the principles for efficient management can be stated, and the lessons of management history can have meaning for all large organizations. The students who attend these courses are showing that managers can be developed and that lessons learned at the schools can be applied in real life.

I make the flat prediction . . . that, in time, our government will recognize that it needs a staff college for civilians to fill the gaps that non-governmental organizations cannot fill. I think that we must train our own executives in advanced fields of administration and policy-formulation. Only in our government can you find the men with the knowledges and skills and attitudes needed for the success of such a training program. We need a program that will increase the breadth of our vision, improve our forecasts, speed our decisions, and, of course, reduce our paper work. We need a program in which experienced, successful executives can share with each other their successes and analyze their failures.

The British Treasury Committee on training of civil service summed up a brilliant report in these words: "A time comes in 8 or 10 or 15 years, when, having learned and practiced his calling, a man does well to cease for a little from action and to think about what he is doing and why and how he is doing it . . . a man who, by thinking, has more thoroughly possessed himself of what he is and does is ripe for greater responsibility."—From an address by Chairman Roger W. Jones, U.S. Civil Service Commission, at the conference on the Government Employees Training Act, Washington, D. C., April 28, 1959.

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